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ABSTRACT

The School Personnel Utilization Project developed a series of modules to assist school personnel in building the necessary skills for the development of organizational change strategies and collaborative, collegial, educational problem solving capabilities. This specific module is on the concept of shared decision-making and its application to school administration. The manual is divided into 12 sections. Included are: (1) discussion of the strengths and weaknesses of shared decision-making in various contexts; (2) a conceptual base and supporting training exercises on different decision-making models; (3) some aspects of problem solving and decision-making through a structured group exercise; and (4) materials focusing on communication systems and the concepts of accountability and responsibility. A bibliography and a list of practitioners' questions concerning shared decision-making are also included. (Author/DGC)

ED101696

SCHOOL PERSONNEL UTILIZATION

IR 001548

NATIONAL CLUSTER COORDINATION CENTER

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SHARED
DECISION - MAKING

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FOREWORD

This training module is the result of the needs and desired outcomes of the School Personnel Utilization (differentiated staffing) program which was funded by the U.S. Office of Education to develop alternative staffing patterns for schools. During the course of the design and development of differentiated staffing programs around the country several key components were identified as necessary for change in school-based and district-level settings. The funded School Personnel Utilization Projects in conjunction with the National Cluster Coordination Center and the U.S. Office of Education began a series of developmental activities which culminated in training materials for teachers and administrators. These training materials when utilized provide critical and essential skills necessary for the development of change strategies or collaborative, collegial educational problem solving. Contained within the context of the series of training modules is virtually within every skill needed for a systematic approach to meeting the educational needs of students through more effective school personnel utilization.

These modules are not designed to be the panacea for training teachers and administrators but rather serve as a focus on specific skills which were identified by school-based personnel as crucial in a change effort. This is not the whole story of the activities and accomplishments of the School Personnel Utilization program but is only a small part of what took place over a period of five years (1968-73). It was the desire of the Project Directors, the Director of the National Cluster Coordination Center and the Program Officer of the U.S.O.E. in planning their efforts to contribute to the body of knowledge which has been building regarding alternatives to managing needed educational change.

It is hoped that through these training materials the School Personnel Utilization concepts and accomplishments will go beyond the federal funding of projects and beyond the boundaries of isolated innovative efforts.

Raymond G. Melton *

Marshall L. Frinks **

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* Dr. Melton is the former Director of the National Cluster Coordination Center which served as the leadership training institute for the funded projects.

** Dr. Frinks is the former U.S.O.E. School Personnel Utilization Project Officer.

STRENGTHS AND LIMITATIONS
OF SHARED DECISION MAKING

A Technical Discussion Paper

Co-Authors
Rodger E. Cryer
Hollis H. Moore, Ph.D.

Editorial Board
James L. Olivero, Ed.D.
Wendy Portnuff

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INTRODUCTION

Can we say that shared decision making produces better decisions than decisions made by a single individual? After reading research from a variety of sources, discussing the major issues with "experts" and examining on-going programs where decision making is shared, one would think that a simple "yes" or "no" response would be possible; but it is our conclusion that a simple, straightforward answer is not possible. In fact, the question first posed implies a simplification of the issues not logically justifiable.

The spirit of this inquiry is to explore both the "pros" and the "cons" of shared decision making without predetermined judgments. To the extent that we accurately reflect the results of an open inquiry, we will consider our efforts successful.

This paper discusses several aspects of importance to understanding shared decision making better. Final conclusions as to whether or not shared decision making is superior to other decision making forms is not offered. The reader is asked to weigh the arguments presented, and, together with the reader's own independent observations, reach his own conclusions. As with so many things, the critical determinant boils down to being related to "a matter of degree," depending on many factors, including the specific situation, the problem to be solved, and the decisions which have to be made.

Our discussions include some of the apparent strengths of shared decision making, some realistic limitations, a listing of major contingencies or variables relative to shared decision making, as well as our findings and recommendations based on our experience and understanding. It is not our intent to promote or sell shared decision making; rather, it is an attempt to shed some light on factors which should be considered in making reasonable judgments about the potential and applicability of increasing shared decision making in schools.

PART I

PERCEIVED AND DOCUMENTED STRENGTHS OF SHARED DECISION MAKING

Teachers

Historically teachers (not to mention parents and children) have felt little power in dealing with educational matters, particularly those outside the classroom setting. Although permitted to make many educational decisions relative to processes within their classrooms, teachers have been aware that administrators and school boards, often in a somewhat paternalistic fashion, have frequently decided such matters as facilities use, class size, salaries, criteria for hiring and firing staff, the minutiae for everyday housekeeping, and other general working conditions, etc. without adequate or appropriate input from teachers.

Unfortunately, paternalism, however benevolent, has a way of robbing its recipients of varying degrees of individual commitment and responsibility. Thus many teachers have responded to highly paternalistic administrators by taking less and less responsibility for decisions which they have felt are simply "handed down from on top."

The social and behavioral science literature documents that teachers, like other employee groups, tend to take greater responsibility for those decisions in which they have participated. Not only can they identify personally with the decisions, but, with some understanding of the process through which decisions have been reached, they are in a better position to support actions needed to implement such decisions. Quoting from one teacher's response to a decision making questionnaire illustrates this idea well: "... when we share the making of decisions, we also share the responsibility for their successes and failures..."

Staff, Students, Community

Associated with feelings of responsibility are feelings of commitment. Currently, researchers are investigating some of the variables which are important to people as they develop degrees of personal and professional commitment. Such research has hypothesized that commitment to anything may partially result from ongoing involvement. For example, the longer one is involved with a school, church, political party, or another person, one's commitment tends to become greater, especially if one is able to claim some "ownership" for some of the principles expressed by the group.

To be sure, other variables are also important, but involvement has emerged as a powerful aspect for the development of commitment. Genuine involvement in school decision making activities by parents, students, staff, board members, etc. therefore, might reasonably be expected to increase commitment to the decisions made by the group. This, of course, assumes other potentially negative variables do not overpower the positive effects of involvement.

Many investigators have expressed interest in these topics.[1] Because of the many possible kinds of involvement, groups of people, socio-economic and ethnic factors as well as types of social groups and possible "causes", inferential strategies and difficult analyses of complex interrelationships of variables will continue to be needed. Our own "guess" is that sincere involvement in substantive and significant decision making, where appropriate and desired, will be related to a greater personal and professional commitment to the action called for by the decision. Such a prediction is based upon responses to a survey of decision making groups in selected schools where members of the groups (teachers, parents, staff, principals, students, etc.) reported increased commitment to the school, its educational programs, and to entire school districts.[2] The authors have not, subsequently, checked to see if the reported increases have produced lasting evidence of heightened commitment though it is felt that such verification of commitment may be substantiated.

[1] For example, on the West Coast alone there are the Center for Advanced Study of Educational Administration, Eugene, Oregon; Marin Shared Decision Making Study, Corte Madera, California; Stanford Research and Development Center, Palo Alto, California; as well as others, including the Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development in Berkeley and the Northwest Laboratory for Educational Research and Development in Portland.

[2] Report from schools participating in the Western Cluster of EPDA School Personnel Utilization Projects, funded by the U. S. Office of Education

Decision Quality

Many decision making groups have reported that the quality and substance of decisions have improved since they have learned techniques for dealing with shared decision making. They have argued that several people can pool far more information than any one person can assemble in an equivalent period of time. Reasoning that "two heads are better than one," this suggests that group decisions are generally more "expert" or technically sound than decisions made by one person. The formal research literature, however, fails to show this relationship to hold up in all cases. The results are mixed, depending on the nature of the problem, the sources and complexities of the information needed and used, the capabilities of the members of the group, etc.

It is true, however, that more and different kinds of information usually are brought into the decision process as more people join in contributing data. Whether additional data are accurate and whether such data aid or actually confuse decision makers must be determined relative to specific decision situations. Most would agree that, at some point in a decision process, data from additional group members become counter-productive--thus, although a thousand additional people might be able to contribute several additional data bits, attempts to reach consensus with an immense decision group would almost certainly be impossible. This logic shows limits in both directions. Thus, to take the position that fewer people (to an extreme) will necessarily produce better or worse decisions appears to be related to several interacting factors including individual expertise, problem complexity, and time and funding constraints.

Some evidence supports the fact that groups can take more risks than individual decision makers. Whether a function of more diffuse responsibility (subsequent to the implementation of decisions reached by groups or some other factors), it may be that more innovative, bold and new directions will result from replacing the single decision maker by a group. Later, contrary evidence on this point will be discussed.

Implementation

Problems of implementing decisions may be less gross when those responsible for implementation have had a role in formulating the decisions. Both because of the increased commitment phenomenon mentioned earlier, and, because of the results of "flattening the effects of an organizational hierarchy," it has been argued that better implementation of decisions may result from shared decision techniques. This latter point, the "flattening" of the hierarchy, is thought to put the "Chiefs" and "Indians" in closer proximity, where needed and appropriate, thus encouraging greater interpersonal communication and understanding. Whether, in fact, a psychological "flattening" actually occurs to the extent claimed and whether or not interpersonal communication actually increases in less hierarchical situations have not been examined scientifically in this study specific to differentiated staffing. Because the notion may be valid, the authors urge controlled, active research to determine the validity of such potential advantages, especially because of implications for implementing a differentiated staffing pattern which may call for hierarchical divisions of labor, roles and responsibilities.

PART II

PERCEIVED AND DOCUMENTED LIMITATIONS OF SHARED DECISION MAKING

Teachers

Although teachers have historically exerted less influence over extra-classroom concerns than have school administrators, this may have come about through the natural and legitimate processes of job specialization and diversification. The pressures, including the rewards and punishments of the classroom, frequently require most of the attention and energy available to an individual teacher. To saddle teachers with worries about an entire system may be a case of unfairly heaping unrealistic responsibilities on the shoulders of already overburdened professionals. A natural reluctance to accept such additional tasks and expend such required efforts then may be misinterpreted by critics as an unwillingness on the part of teachers to accept necessary responsibility and accountability for decision making. In fact, such behavior may be a rational expression of the finite limits of teacher time, energy, and other capacities.

Educational planners should look to new ways to lighten teachers' responsibilities rather than ways to encumber and complicate their lives. This planning, however, does not necessarily mean that the opportunities to help make decisions are eliminated.

Staff, Students and Community

A. Skill Development

Special skills in interpersonal communication, human relations, background preparation, subject area expertise, problem solving and group dynamics are often listed as necessary for shared decision making groups. Many of these skills cannot be found in abundance in a group randomly selected from the general population. In fact, many of these specific skills are most highly developed among individuals who have been extensively prepared in formal, specially designed programs. Social workers, marriage counselors, career counselors, clinical psychologists, psychotherapists and the clergy are people who have generally had special preparation in these critical skills. A random cross-section of teachers, school staff, students and community representatives not having individuals with these critical skills is not likely to constitute a group with maximal potential for effectiveness. Even if a representative group is assembled by random inclusion of interested people, such a group might be found to be poorly equipped to engage in shared decision making. In fact, a common complaint of decision making groups is that skills necessary for accomplishing the group's tasks are largely absent. Despite the laudable intentions of some group members, some members remain distressed by the lack of group problem solving skills.

An alternative to the traditional shared decision making group (representative body) is the "panel of experts." The panel method attempts to utilize the pooled skills of specially prepared people. While such panels can probably produce decisions more effectively and efficiently than can representatives of cross-sectional groups, such "panels" do not represent shared decision making groups in another very important sense. Shared decision making can be removed from the special preserve of "experts" and reassigned to a more broadly diversified and "representative" group. Supplanting one administrator for a panel of administrators, although creating a decision making group, is a strategy which has been found to be too expensive in time and personnel for local schools.

B. Vested Interests

Another persistent problem faced by decision makers is that of vested interests. This parochialism is expressed as tendencies to propose, support and vote for decisions which will enhance one's constituency in spite of possible detrimental effects to school-wide situations. Parochial tactics, when confined to teacher groups, may take the form of departmental "block" voting. In "open" decision groups, community representatives may look for coalitional bases for voting power, while students or staff may exert influence by withholding their cooperation on issues requiring nearly total ratification. Such tactics hamper the decision process. Personal biases, conflicts over individual feelings and values can generate such dissonance that progress may be blocked entirely. "Factions" within a group can argue, harangue and filibuster in their struggles to get decisions which will favor their own interests. When these problems occur in a group, the tediousness of making even minor decisions can make the group members' experiences frustrating and punishing. Efforts at making shared decisions are likely to be futile or at least frustrating and discouraging under such circumstances.

C. Time Constraints

Another concern for representative-type decision groups is the amount of time needed to arrive at decisions. The literature, for example, indicates that groups first invest considerable time getting acquainted; individuals are occupied with building better communication techniques and establishing interpersonal trust.[1] Few attempts to shorten or eliminate this "getting acquainted" interval have been successful. This is a period when important personal needs are being met although group production is minimal with respect to decision tasks. In terms of strict cost-benefit analyses, "getting acquainted" time is difficult to justify unless one can project future output at extremely high levels. Such projections are necessarily statements of probability involving uncertainty and risk, and are thus open to challenge.

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[1] For an indepth treatment of these ideas see:

Pfeiffer, J. William and John E. Jones, A Handbook of Structured Experiences for Human Relations Training, University Associates Press, Vols. I, II and III, Iowa City, Iowa, 1972, and

Simon, Sidney B., et al., Values Clarification, Hart Publishing Co., Inc., New York, 1972.

Another aspect of the time problem stems from the requirement to establish some form of consensus for formulating and agreeing to decisions. Such agreement invariably takes considerably more time than that required by the talented, experienced, sensitive and responsive administrator deciding independently without requiring formalized discussion, debate and voting. In some problem solving situations, the building administrator or some other individual can often operate much more efficiently and perhaps more effectively than the best of committees.

An additional time consideration is in terms of peoplehours. That is, when ten people spend one hour's time dealing with a problem, ten hours have been invested. With teachers, one can compute peoplehours in terms of money for such things as substitute pay needed to cover classrooms (while the teacher is involved in extra-classroom activity). For example, a half-day meeting for a staff of 20 may be considered the equivalent of ten substitute days, representing a fairly expensive investment in decision making. Using peoplehour formulas of accounting, twenty-five teachers investing one hundred total hours (in one academic year) in a decision making group may cost $20,000, given teacher compensation at approximately eight dollars per hour. This money could be used in a variety of ways that might have greater pay-off. Representative decision making groups regularly convening numbers of professionals for two and three hour meetings should consider the peoplehours invested as one dimension of evaluating the effectiveness and efficiency of shared decision making. Of course, time savings in communicating the results of the decision making activities and achieving commitment to implement such decisions, if present, also need to be considered.

Decision Quality

The quality of decisions, some argue, improves when shared decision making replaces more traditional modes. The "two-heads-are-better-than-one" idea, while popular, depends in part upon a philosophy which views man as rational and reasonably informed. Such images of man are currently being threatened by the contradictory findings of several social scientists.[1] Many people, these findings show, may be indifferent to ideology and scientific information by making capricious and arbitrary decisions. Voting by such people may represent an aggregation of opinions based upon moment-to-moment personal impulses rather than "group wisdom." Decisions based upon such votes are then, at best, rather bland; and, at worst, may represent a decision based on the "lowest common denominator." Expectations for daring, bold, new ideas to flow from such a group of passive people are minimal.

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[1] See for example: Jones, E.E., et al. (Eds.), Attribution: Perceiving the Causes of Behavior. New York: General Learning Press, 1972.

McGuire, W. J. "The Nature of Attitudes and Attitude Change." In G. Lindzey and E. Aronson (Eds.) Handbook of Social Psychology, Vol. 3, 136-314.

Associated with the quality of decision matter is the individual's willingness and desire to participate in group decision making. Several writers have dispelled the myth that everyone truly wants "part of the action." In fact, in a recent book Without Guilt and Justice: From Decidophobia to Autonomy, the author points out that some people live in constant fear of having to make decisions; such persons have an irrational fear of deciding things.[2] One can imagine the "progress" likely to be made in decision making groups where the majority of members are "decidophobiacs!"

People do tend to be more interested in decisions which have immediate bearing on their own lives and less interested in more remote decisions.

---

[2] Kaufmann, Walter, Without Guilt and Justice: From Decidophobia to Autonomy, Peter H. Wyden, Inc., 1973.

Implementation of Decisions

Proper implementation of decisions, irrespective of how decisions are made, seems to be dependent upon at least three factors:

1. Understood and agreed upon, clear-cut goals and objectives,
2. Trust between those responsible for deciding and those who carry out decisions, and,
3. Defined responsibilities of implemeniation tasks to specific individuals.

Perhaps a further word about these points is in order. Following are verbatim sample quotes from actual questionnaire responses:

> Lack of clear-cut goals--"We don't really know what is a Council matter and what is not;" "Frequently decisions are made in the school without the Council's knowing about them."
>
> Lack of trust--"We still don't trust each other enough to be really open," "Many things remain unsaid only to crop up later through someone's failure to fulfill an obligation to the group."
>
> Lack of leadership--"I often feel that the chairman has abdicated his responsibility when he fails to make up agendas...or to...actually chair the meeting (or give the meeting any direction)."

PART III

CONTINGENCIES

Generalizations about shared decision making are accompanied by several contingencies. That is, each of the areas discussed (e.g., Teachers, Staff, Students, Community, Decision Quality and Implementation) imply several considerations essential to our understanding the conditions of shared decision making. In this section, each area is discussed in terms of major contingencies.

Teachers

An important aspect of successful shared decision making is the school "climate." Shared decision making seems to require a genuine, professional collegial climate. For this to exist, members of the group must feel capable and knowledgeable with respect to making and following through on decisions. Additionally, the principal and teachers must develop and maintain a high level of professional and personal rapport in order to sustain proper conditions for honest, co-equal relationships. This requires a principal and faculty capable of providing and maintaining mutual support and respect for one another. A combination of communication and listening skills, together with skills in interpersonal relations, is vital.

Staff, Students and Community

An atmosphere of openness and trust is essential to decision groups of all types; for the decision group composed of staff, students and community, this kind of atmosphere becomes even more critical, and usually more difficult to attain.

However, where members of the community jointly choose to work together with educators, school staff and the student body, the results can be highly relevant, dynamic and significant. Openness and trust between staff, students and community are ingredients which allow for an additive effect to occur, whereas distrust and "hidden agendas" serve to divide and undermine the effectiveness of a group. Diverse groups are likely to have different basic assumptions; such diversity makes the process of obtaining consensus more lengthy and complicated.

Homogeneous groups (at least those with agreed upon or tacit goal focus), although limited in some ways, do have distinct advantages when involved in problem solving work requiring unified cooperative support, especially if time is a major constraint.

Decision Quality

As presented earlier, getting shared decision making groups to the point of functioning effectively requires TIME--time for preparation, time for getting personally acquainted, time to experiment with problem solving, time to review decisions following their initial implementation, etc. What has happened in many field situations has been an impatient "pushing" to somehow "speed up" these processes. We know that impatience with educational bureaucracy is often a problem. To suggest slowing already sluggish operations is unlikely to gain wide support. Those contemplating sharing the decision making process are advised to assess the responsiveness of the current decision making style or mode against the anticipated additional demands of a modified procedure. Instant panaceas or dramatic instant success are simply unrealistic in this area of problem solving innovations. Much work, patience, perseverance, faith, and determination are required.

Two other questions are important to raise before deciding to proceed or not:

(1) the question regarding the level of community, district, administration and board support for shared decision making concepts and operational plans, and

(2) the question regarding the availability of specialized consultative help.

Those who have not fully assessed where and to what extent they might enjoy support and encouragement have often found themselves feeling quite alone and vulnerable. Be careful to anticipate questions which might be directed to you regarding sharing decision making so as to help avoid defensiveness, avoidance and/or retreat. Frank, open discussion, with discretion and the knowledge that the community, board and district administrators are reasonably behind your attempts at shared decision making is necessary to effectively answer skeptical probing questions from others. Assurances of support external to those directly involved is essential, especially from the building principal and district superintendent.

The extent to which outside consultative assistance may be needed is difficult to predict. District size, available in-house expertise, complexity of the problems, budgetary restrictions, etc. must be taken into account in anticipating outside consultative service needs. Consultants can be used effectively in a variety of ways, but unfortunately, they are often misused or inadequately used by school districts. Three variations, or combinations may be suggested. First, consultants may be used as an outside charismatic influence to bring in fresh perspectives, a different "style," etc. to generate interest and commitment to explore shared decision making concepts. Consultants can also be used in followup activities to the decision to proceed by providing technical assistance in answering questions, providing requested "expert" input, etc. A third variation is to ask consultants to perform in a facilitating or catalyst role by actually working with a group or groups to initiate consideration of the major issues involved.

PART IV

SUMMARY

Factors associated with the strengths and limitations of shared decision making have been presented. Specific opinions of practitioners who have engaged in shared decision processes have provided much of the background information for this discussion. Combining this data with information from appropriate publications and ideas of "experts," a "conclusion" is proposed:

> To date, clear superiority of shared decision processes over individual decision processes has not been conclusively established.

In view of this, the choice to "try" shared decision making must be based upon assessment of the myriad circumstances surrounding each school situation. Some points to consider have been suggested under the heading of "contingencies." No attempt has been made to assign "weights" to the points listed (in part due to the insufficiency of research data available). Continued research is indicated, although the precise forms of such procedures are apt to be highly complex. However, the effort is greatly needed in the estimation of the authors.

This training package on shared decision making is an attempt to translate some empirical evidence and a great deal of the literature and theoretical concepts into practical tools which may assist school staffs to proceed more wisely and realistically into the realm of sharing in decision making responsibilities if they should decide to move in this direction.

FACILITATING THE DECISION MAKING GROUP

One of the characteristics of an effective leader is that he/she develops teamwork; that is, he/she is "group-centered" as well as "employee-centered." Likert[1] describes the "group-centered" leader as one who:

> 1. Endeavors to build and maintain in his group a keen sense of responsibility for achieving its own goals and meeting its obligations to the larger organization.
>
> 2. Helps to provide the group with the stimulation arising from a restless dissatisfaction.
>
> 3. Discourages complacency and passive acceptance of the present.
>
> 4. Helps the members to become aware of new possibilities, more important values, and more significant goals.
>
> 5. Is an important source of enthusiasm for the significance of the mission and goals of the group.
>
> 6. Sees that the tasks of the group are important and significant and difficult enough to be challenging.
>
> 7. Understands and uses with sensitivity and skill the principle of supportive relationships.

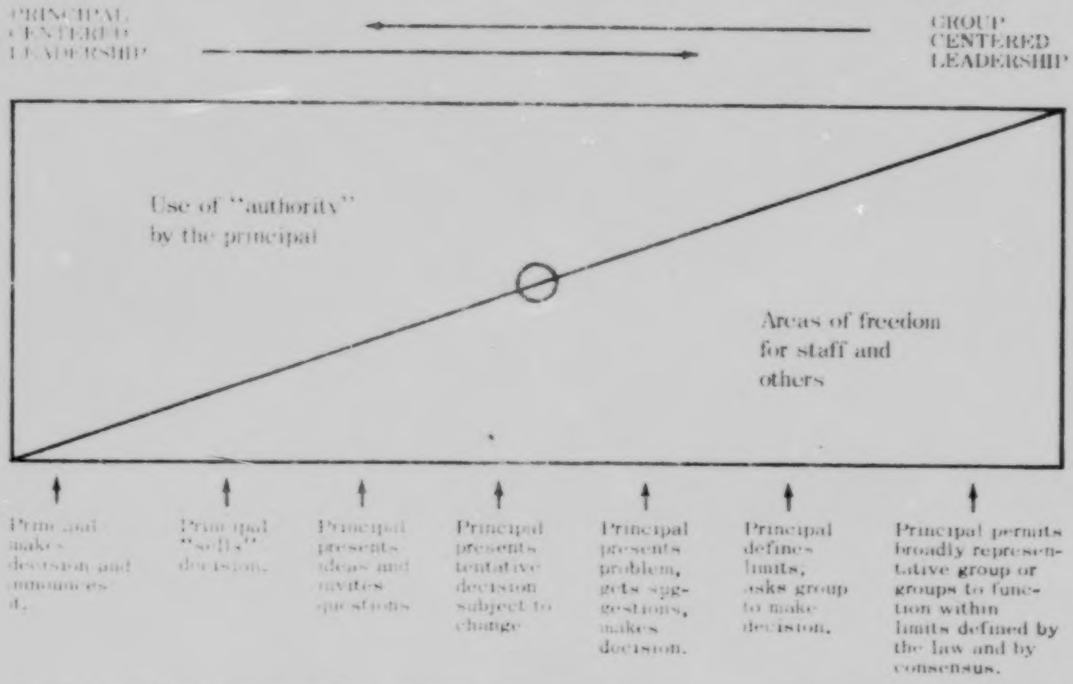
The Continuum of Leadership Behavior. The school principal has a wide variety of leadership approaches available to him in determining the degree to which the staff or other groups may participate in the making of decisions. As shown in Figure 1, a principal-centered leadership (the most autocratic type) is at one end of the continuum, and group-centered leadership (the most democratic type) is at the other end.

---

[1] Likert, Rensis, The Human Organization; Its Management and Value, New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967.

Figure 1

CONTINUUM OF LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR


PRINCIPAL CENTERED LEADERSHIP
GROUP CENTERED LEADERSHIP
Use of "authority" by the principal
Areas of freedom for staff and others
Principal makes decision and announces it.
Principal "sells" decision.
Principal presents ideas and invites questions
Principal presents tentative decision subject to change
Principal presents problem, gets suggestions, makes decision.
Principal defines limits; asks group to make decision.
Principal permits broadly representative group or groups to function within limits defined by the law and by consensus.

Adapted from R. Tannenbaum and W.H. Schmidt, "How to Choose a Leadership Pattern," *Harvard Business Review*, Vol. 36, No. 2 (March-April, 1958), p. 96.

Each type of action is related to the degree of authority used by the principal and to the amount of freedom available to individuals or groups in reaching decisions. At the one extreme the principal maintains maximum control; whereas, at the other extreme he/she exercises minimal control. In between the two extremes are intermediate stages with varying degrees of "use of authority by the principal" and "areas of freedom for staff and others." These two categories are equal or balanced on the continuum in Figure 1 when the leadership behavior is "manager presents tentative decision subject to change," indicated by the circle in the continuum.

Factors determining the choice of leadership approaches. Each situation or problem calling for a decision requires determination of a reasonable approach to be used. The choice should be made on the basis of an evaluation of interpersonal and extrapersonal factors, as well as the problematic situation. Forces within oneself include such matters as confidence in others and one's own inclinations as to how to handle the particular situation that calls for a decision. Forces within others include their interest in the problem, their understanding and identification with the goals of the organization, their knowledge, and their desire and expectancy to share in the decision-making. Forces in the problematic situation include such factors as the type of organization, the effectiveness of the individuals and the group, the problem itself, and the pressures of time. Sensitivity to each of these forces at the time that a problem arises is the first step in effective leadership, but it is not enough.

> ...The successful leader is one who is able to behave appropriately in the light of these perceptions. If direction is in order, he/she is able to direct; if considerable participative freedom is called for, he/she is able to provide such freedom.

> Thus, the successful leader of people can be primarily characterized neither as a strong leader nor as a permissive one. Rather, he/she is one who maintains a high batting average in accurately assessing the forces that determine what his most appropriate behavior at any given time should be and in actually being able to behave accordingly. Being both insightful and flexible, he/she is less likely to see the problems of leadership as a dilemma.[1]

It is the primary legal and expected responsibility of the principal of a school, as problems arise, to determine whether he/she should be permitting others more or less freedom in making the necessary decisions concerning these problems.

---

[1] Robert Tannenbaum and Warren H. Schmidt, "How to Choose a Leadership Pattern," Harvard Business Review, Vol. 36, No. 2 (March-April, 1958), pp. 95-101.

BLAKE'S MANAGERIAL GRID

Personal Orientation: Concern for People or Production*

Most every teacher will profess to be interested in children. However, the placement of the student is often second to a love of subject, or a high work drive for production. This style is often a teaching style or orientation to work. It is likewise reflected in a managerial, administrative or decision making style. Some people call it "task oriented" when a person is solely concerned with the tasks to be accomplished. When a person is more interested in people per se, and in the process by which they arrive at decisions, this is referred to as being "process oriented."

It is too neat to divide an orientation to work into these simple groups, but they can serve a useful purpose. Blake** devised what is called a "managerial grid." It is useful to discuss for a number of different reasons.

1. It is useful in conceptualizing how teams of teachers may pursue their objectives along different lines, which is especially helpful to shared decision making groups.

2. It may help in conceptualizing how leaders should behave with their groups of colleagues in planning, implementing, and evaluating educational policy.

3. It is useful to conceptualize interpersonal problem solving behavior in many other situations as well, such as committee work or relationships with others.

---

* Adapted from "How to Build a Model of Staff Differentiation," by English et al, Claremont Graduate School, 1970.

** R. R. Blake, J. S. Morgan, and A. C. Bidwell, "The Managerial Grid: A Comparison of Eight Theories of Management," *Advanced Management Journal*, 1962.

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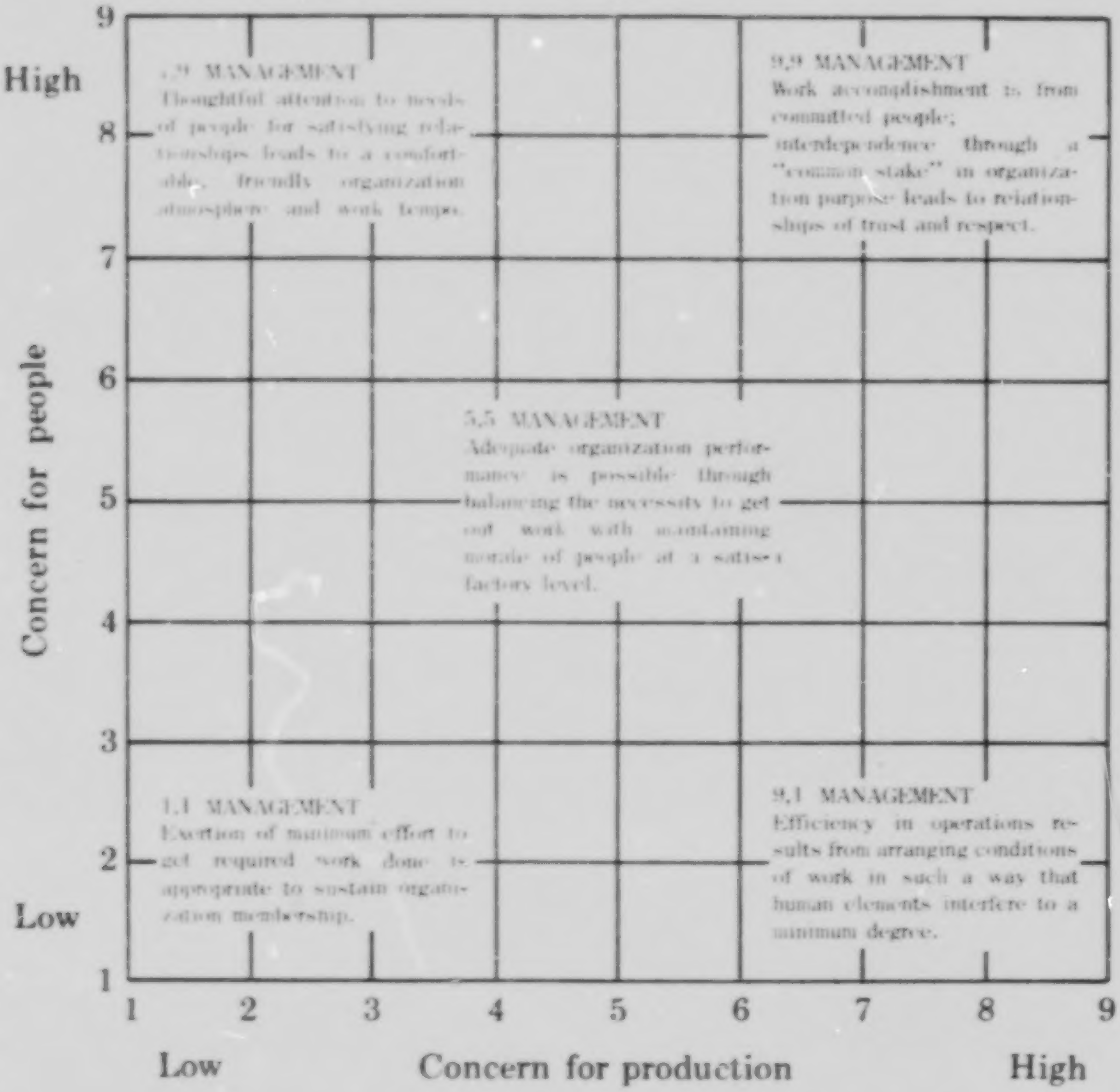
Figure 2

BLAKE'S MANAGERIAL GRID

Where Does Your Style Fit?



1,9 MANAGEMENT
Thoughtful attention to needs of people for satisfying relationships leads to a comfortable, friendly organization atmosphere and work tempo.

9,9 MANAGEMENT
Work accomplishment is from committed people; interdependence through a "common stake" in organization purpose leads to relationships of trust and respect.

5,5 MANAGEMENT
Adequate organization performance is possible through balancing the necessity to get out work with maintaining morale of people at a satisfactory level.

1,1 MANAGEMENT
Exertion of minimum effort to get required work done is appropriate to sustain organization membership.

9,1 MANAGEMENT
Efficiency in operations results from arranging conditions of work in such a way that human elements interfere to a minimum degree.

The Managerial Grid: Concern for Production. (R.R. Blake and J.S. Mouton, *The Managerial Grid*, Houston, Tex.: Gulf Publishing Company, 1964.)

The Scale

1,1 (Low concern for people, low concern for production) Impoverished Organization. People are unconcerned, apathetic and indifferent. Nothing much happens and little is accomplished.

9,1 (Low concern for people, high concern for production) Task Driven Organization. People are things, men are commodities. People are to be manipulated and controlled. The end justifies the means.

5,5 (Medium concern for people, medium concern for work) Dampened Pendulum. The "muddle-it-through", things could get worse" attitude. Often a wishy-washy stance where one day the whip is cracked and the next everything is "groovy."

1,9 (High concern for people, low concern for production) Country Club Leadership. Work is pushed aside because it might interfere with "good fellowship" and the "one big happy family" syndrome.

9,9 (High concern for people, high concern for work.) Team Esprit Leadership. Production or work is the integration of human and task requirements.

Towards 9, 9 Models of Effective Shared Decision Making

A 9, 9 model for shared decision making would suggest that Blake's criteria of the integration of work and human needs had been accomplished. Human needs must be centered on the clients or students first, and on the "education profession's" interests second. The following is suggested as criteria by which such a model of shared decision making may be assessed:

1. The degree to which the expenditure of human energy accomplishes stated goals in the most efficient and effective manner (a blend in both psychological terms and hard dollars and cents which means that human needs and work tasks are highly integrated);
2. The degree to which client needs are met (affective/cognitive/psychomotor); high task rate completion rate and high pupil and staff morale;
3. The degree to which the staffing pattern can attract, utilize and retain skilled manpower over a period of time to accomplish the objectives of the organization.
4. The depth of specialization available to handle the known spectrum of client problems;
5. The degree to which roles can be abolished and recreated as client needs shift and new priorities are established;
6. The degree to which role shifts can be predicted which means basing such shifts on the needs of clients in observable, performance terms;
7. The degree to which roles are flexible and can be utilized and placed where client and group needs exist;
8. The degree to which role specialization solves diagnosed client and group problems.

INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS AND ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR

Schools as organizations have certain role structures and expectations. As an institution, an organization establishes roles; and the incumbents of these institutional roles are expected by the organization to exhibit the kind of behavior which will contribute to the goals of the organization. But individual persons who have their own personality structures and needs occupy these various institutional roles. The mechanism by which the needs of the institution and the needs of the individual are modified so as to come together is often in workgroups, whether it be in the classroom or in shared decision making groups. There is a dynamic interrelationship in such workgroups, not only of an interpersonal nature, but also between institutional requirements and the personal needs of individual participants. The shaping of the institutional role, the development of a climate within the social system, and the very personality of the participants all dynamically interact with one another. Organizational behavior can be viewed as the product of this interaction.

How much organizational behavior can be ascribed to role expectation and role prescription and how much is traceable to the personality needs of the role incumbent? Although much attention has been paid to attempts to make the above distinction, our present solutions must be highly speculative for any specific situation. A useful way of picturing and discussing this problem is shown in Figure 3.

Figure 3

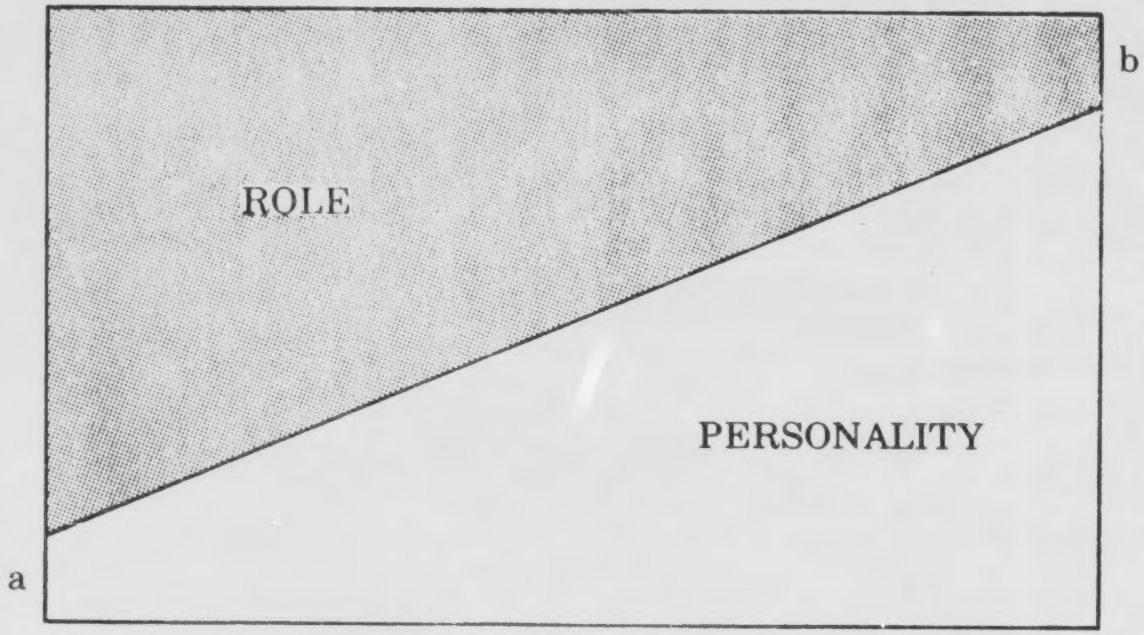


FIGURE 3: Concept of the Interplay of Role and Personality in determining organizational behavior. Adapted from Jacob W. Getzels, "Administration as a Social Process," in Andrew W. Halpin, ed., *Administrative Theory in Education* (Chicago: Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, 1958), p. 158. For further discussion see pages 66-88 in *Organizational Behavior In Schools* by Robert G. Owens.

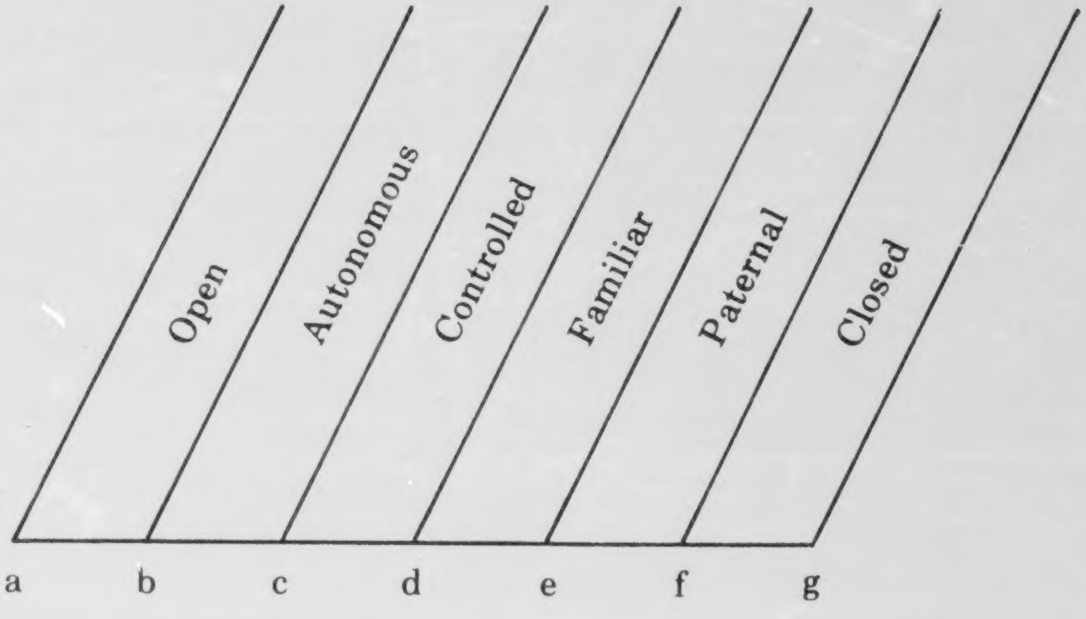
ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE

Organizational climate assessment data can be extremely useful in a practical way if, first, it is not construed to be a test or a criterion measure in the judgmental or evaluative sense and, second, if it is proffered to the school faculty as feedback for their analysis, evaluation, and discussion.

For further discussion, see pages 167 - 194 in Organizational Behavior in Schools by Robert G. Owens.

Figure 4

ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE


Open
Autonomous
Controlled
Familiar
Paternal
Closed
a
b
c
d
e
f
g

Continuum of Organizational Climates Drawn on Halpin's Terminology.

Figure 5

THE SCHOOL AS A SOCIAL SYSTEM

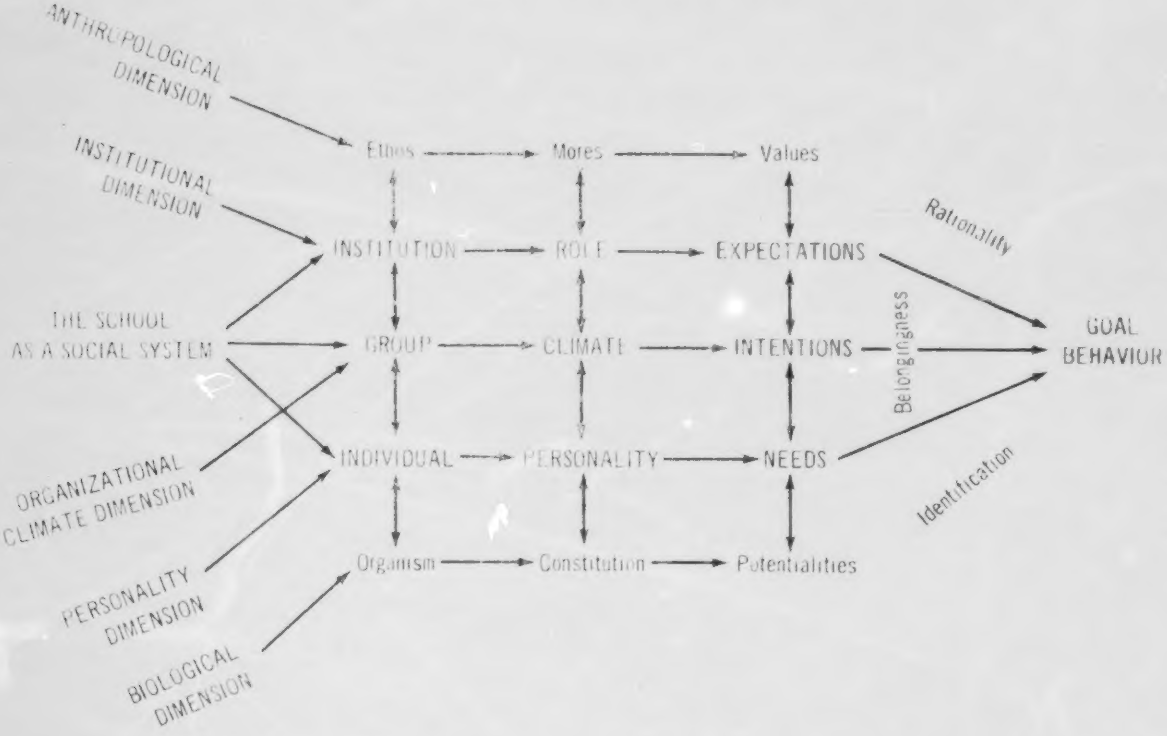

ANTHROPOLOGICAL DIMENSION
INSTITUTIONAL DIMENSION
THE SCHOOL AS A SOCIAL SYSTEM
ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE DIMENSION
PERSONALITY DIMENSION
BIOLOGICAL DIMENSION
Ethos
Mores
Values
INSTITUTION
ROLE
EXPECTATIONS
GROUP
CLIMATE
INTENTIONS
INDIVIDUAL
PERSONALITY
NEEDS
Organism
Constitution
Potentialities
Rationality
Belongingness
Identification
GOAL BEHAVIOR

FIGURE 5: Dimensions of the school as a Social System. Adapted from Jacob W. Getzels and Herbert A. Thelen, "The Classroom Group as a Unique Social System," in Nelson B. Henry, ed., *The Dynamics of Instructional Groups: Sociopsychological Aspects of Teaching and Learning*, N.S.S.E. Yearbook LIX, Part II (Chicago: National Society for the Study of Education, 1960), p. 80.

For further discussion, see pages 66 - 88 in Organizational Behavior in Schools by Robert G. Owens.

Another source is The School as a Social System, available from the Nueva Day School and Children's Center, at 6565 Skyline Blvd., Hillsborough, Ca. 94010

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SHARED DECISION MAKING:
PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS
AND
INSTITUTIONAL VALUES

SECTION I

READING MATERIALS AND DIAGNOSTIC PRE- & POST TESTS

Rodger E. Cryer
Project Director

James Olivero, Ed. D.
Prime Consultant

Ms. Wendy Portnuff
Project Consultant

Hollis M. Moore, Ph. D.
Consultant

Virgil S. Hollis
Superintendent
Marin County Schools

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PART I - INTRODUCTION

Considerable psychological, sociological, and behavioral science research has pointed up the importance of the personality characteristics of individuals and groups and how the interaction of these characteristics may help to establish both real and perceived values and norms within work settings. For example, some research indicates that groups can and often do possess distinct "personalities". That is, they differ in many of the same ways as individuals differ. The "group personality", however, cannot be described simply in terms of an aggregation of personalities of all the members in the group. Something far more intricate seems to occur in many groups. Some individual personality traits appear to dominate while others diminish, and still others seem to arise spontaneously. The relationships between individual and group values are similarly intricate. It is clear that additional research needs to be done in order for us to better understand the relationships between specific individuals, groups, and organizations, especially as these factors affect the working climate in public schools.

The purpose of this section is to familiarize readers with questions being asked by educators who are participating in shared decision making and with our answers to these questions. The answers are based on empirical evidence gathered by the authors in workshops and discussions with a broad sample of educators at various stages in development of their decision making groups.

Accompanying this section is another booklet which contains training materials to be used with a staff involved in shared decision making.

Readers should begin by taking the diagnostic test which follows.

If you answer 8 out of 10 questions correctly on the diagnostic test, you may not need to read the background material before participating in the training workshop. You may, however, find the material of interest. A knowledge of this material will be helpful to you in interpreting and internalizing those outcomes of the workshop which seem professionally sound and worthwhile to you.

PART II

DIAGNOSTIC TEST

Directions: Select the most appropriate answer and circle your choice. When the test is completed, obtain an answer sheet from the leader and complete the analysis of your responses with the correct answers.

1. The professional literature is adamant on the issue that all personalities can be members of shared decision making groups with sufficient and appropriate training. True False

2. Most institutions come close to putting into practice the personal values of staff members. True False

3. Most schools involved in shared decision making have made a careful analysis of personality characteristics and, institutional values before engaging in shared decision making. True False

4. Individuals involved in shared decision making quickly learn to represent the best interests of the school rather than personal and/or departmental concerns. True False

5. There are instruments available to help administrators learn how much their personality indicates that they need to have control over other people. True False

6. The more people know about themselves, the more likely they are to be open in their communication with others. True False

7. Which of the following is considered the most difficult problem to initially confront (from empirical information sources consisting of representatives in schools where shared decision making is practiced)?

   A. Difficulty in designing a decision making model

   B. Difficulty in establishing an accountability system

   C. Lack of trust between administrator and teachers

   D. Lack of specific skills having to do with making decisions

8. All people have values; however, they seldom assess how closely their daily actions reflect their values — True / False

9. For people to learn about themselves and their values frequently they must give special though and consideration to the issues. — True / False

10. From the empirical evidence it appears that considerable "lip-service" is being paid to the shared decision making concept but little may have actually been accomplished thus far. — True / False

ANSWERS TO DIAGNOSTIC TEST *

1.	False
2.	False
3.	False
4.	False
5.	True
6.	True
7.	C
8.	True
9.	True
10.	True

---

* Additional information regarding the responses follows in the next pages.

EXPLANATION OF RESPONSES TO DIAGNOSTIC TEST

1. The answer to this question is "false." Empirical evidence and research documents the fact that some individuals can not and do not perform well with others in groups. There is considerable research literature which indicates that some behaviors of adults can be changed--but most of this change is based upon an inner quality of openness that must be nurtured early in life. Apparently, however, there are some personalities that have become so closed over time that this proposed training will probably not cause lasting modifications in the individual's modus operandi.

Some personalities, it seems, must be fulfilled by having authority over others. In the case of principals, this may entail a need to operate a school as if it were a military vessel where the principal is the proverbial captain of the ship.

This is not meant to imply that the behavior is totally negative; on the contrary there are "benevolent" captains who have the real concerns of the crew at heart; however, such people are not well disposed to sharing power or authority.

2. The answer to this question is "false". Some schools do a reasonably good job of this, but too often the philosophy of schools is so vague that it is difficult to establish a match between the individual values of people in the school and the school's

institutional practices. Many schools have found that it has been necessary to establish a mid-position which accommodates some of the differing positions of the staff. Perhaps this is the reason that alternative schools or schools-within-a-school are becoming fashionable throughout the country in that such schools may better accommodate the philosophy of specific groups within society.

3. The answer to this question is "false". Apparently none of the schools we are familiar with made a very extensive study of personality characteristics and institutional values before engaging in share decision making. Interestingly, from some of the empirical data available, it would seem that this factor has had as much to do with the success of shared decision making efforts as any other item.

4. The answer to this question is "false". It seems that one of the most difficult problems for members of a decision making group to overcome is the tendency to think parochially. That is, most members think of the role they play in personal terms--often there is more concern about individual and/or departmental interests than concern about what is best for children or the whole school. It is only after members of the group begin to realize that all factors need consideration that more realistic perspectives are possible. One approach for getting to this more global understanding is to make certain that members of the decision making group have ample

opportunities to interact with each other on a variety of formal and informal levels. Even relatively small school staffs are amazed at how little they know about each other as individual persons.

5. The answer to this question is "true". There are at least three reasonably reliable instruments available to principals who may want to know themselves better--both from the vantage point of personally evaluating their operating style and gaining perspective on how others view their style. The FIRO B instrument is one which can be self-administered privately. The LBDQ is an instrument that a principal can use to have ratings from the staff as well as himself. By drawing two profiles the principal is able to determine if staff members believe he is functioning in the style he believes he uses. A mismatch is often very revealing to the principal. The Purdue Inventory is another instrument somewhat similar to the LBDQ. It is used in essentially the same manner. The latter two instruments are less easy to self-analyze and thus require an outside person experienced in such analysis.

6. The answer to this question is "true". Most of the psychological literature indicates that a person must know himself before he is able to know others well. When members of decision making groups have reached the position where they can disagree with an idea without confronting the person there is a good chance of the group being able to deal with complex issues. The greater the

openness of the individuals on the decision making group the greater the possibility that substantive issues can be effecitvely addressed.

7. The answer to this question is "C". The other possible responses to this question have to do with operating procedures that must be dealt with and overcome after trust levels are appropriately established during the early stages of implementing shared decision making. The personality variable, however, having to do with the degree of trust between people, is often quite difficult to overcome because people find they are dealing with emotions--not with fact or rational elements. Unfortunately, because of the ways schools have been established in the past, because of the legal requirements of the principal, and because of other influences such as the increased militancy of teachers, there are obstacles which cause great difficulty when trustful relationships between teachers and administrators are attempted. Irrespective of the individual occupying the principal's chair, there is a tendency to look upon the role with expectations that are different from those for the teacher in the next room. Many problems can likely be solved when the personality factors have been resolved and reasonable levels of trust established.

8. The answer to this question is "true". Undoubtedly each individual has values--although in daily practice he may act in ways which vary from what he believes. This variance may cause considerable cognitive dissonance--individuals then must mentally wrestle with themselves to continue functioning. Many people may try to reduce the

discrepancy between real and ideal situations. Of help to these people is an opportunity to check one's values and to assess one's routine.in terms of those values. For individuals to balance their lives reasonably well there must be some congruence between how they feel about themselves, their families, and their jobs. If one of these elements is markedly different, an individual usually finds his life is only partially fulfilled.

9. The proper response to this question is "true". Incredibly, in education we seldom legitimatize the right to think about ourselves. It is as if we are saying, it is normal to study "the disciplines" but not to study ourselves and why we respond to various stimuli the way we do. For real self-study to occur, special occasions must be established giving tacit approval to such activity.

10. The answer to this item is "true". From the empirical data it seems that both teachers and administrators in schools attempting shared decision making believe that "less" is happening than should be the case. Teachers often feel that the administration is paying lip-service to the sharing concept but that real decisions are made before they get to the decision making group. Thus, the people in the group are being used as a rubber stamp.

On the other hand, administrators often feel that teachers talk about shared decision making but seldom get around to making a decision. Then, when decisions are made, the group does not accept the responsibility and accountability for its decisions. A general observation tempering these points is "while everything isn't working as smoothly as we would like to have it, the method is worth continuing and we wouldn't want to go back to the old method."

PART III QUESTIONS ASKED BY EDUCATORS CONCERNING HOW PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS AND INSTITUTIONAL VALUES AFFECT SHARED DECISION MAKING

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1. How do you change new people so they can fit into the shared decision making system?

Presently we lack sufficient information as to precisely how we can change people so that they can better fit into the shared decision making system. In this regard one of the major problems may be the orientation of new faculty to past decisions and their resulting operational procedures. Often new people must go through many of the same kinds of training exercises needed by the initial group. Thus, if new personalities join the school staff, it may be wise to administer a variety of instruments (see concern #2 in the Shared Decision Making Matrix, Personality Characteristics and Institutional Values, which is available from Dr. Raymond G. Melton, Director, National Cluster Center, 2418 Hatton Street, Sarasota, Florida 33577, which may be used to ascertain the relative "openness" or closedness" of personalities.) Empirical evidence suggests that the more open the person, the greater the likelihood that he or she will profit from and contribute to shared decision making.

2. How does a staff insure that a shared decision making process is continued even when the administration changes?

There are relatively few examples of school districts where administrators have come into the school system after shared decision making has been fully implemented. Unfortunately, in cases where administrators have changed, there seemed to be no single procedure for determining, a priori, whether the administrator will support shared decision making. There exists a few instances where administrators have espoused their conviction to support shared decision making, and have subsequently failed to match their practice with espoused theory. These same experiences have occurred with teachers, children and parents.

3 What is the relationship between the formal decision making process and the informal process and is it based on trust and open communication?

It is difficult at this time to specify the exact relationship between formal and informal decision making groups. Empirical data suggest that the more responsive the formal decision making group is to the needs of the clientele, the less need there is for an informal system. However, anyone truly interested, concerned, and involved with shared decision making should realize that an informal communication and decision making group exist almost without exception. The potential power of those involved with both formal and informal aspects of the decision making process must be considered with regard to all major decisions.

4. If the principal is accountable can he tolerate shared decision making?

A significant problem under the conditions of shared decision making is the position in which principals find themselves relative to the Superintendent and the Board of Education. It is reasonable that those who are held ultimately accountable should be responsible because of their own actions rather than the actions of others.

5. Can all principals give up power?

It is unlikely that all principals can "give up" or share power. Admitting that human nature is highly complex, both research and empirical evidence suggests that some individuals are nearly totally incapable of changing their learned behavior patterns to a significant degree. Clearly, some changes can be made;, however, the longer the patterns have been ingrained, the less likely that these behaviors can be altered. The answer to this question, therefore, depends in part upon what behavioral evidence will be accepted for determining whether shared decision making will be able to function properly.

6. Can shared decision making be a reality--the concept of sharing accountability is important; how can it be accomplished without a sham being made of the concept?

Shared decision making can be a reality. Like other departures from the more traditional techniques, it requires some expenditure of staff time and effort to be achieved. One serious problem is when shared decision making is the label for a controlled, non-autonomous faculty group which has been assembled to merely ratify administrator's decisions. This situation can disillusion and delude people which in turn can alienate them from future, genuine efforts to alter decision making processes in a school.

7. Are people psychologically secure enough to be involved in shared decision making?

Yes, some people are. Such people are often those who are willing to take reasonable risks, who are in the vanguard of change, and who have learned the requisite communication and interpersonal skills. Not only are these people secure, they also are known to be practical, realistic and reasonably intelligent.

8. How can an institution move toward shared decision making?

Study, training, and a majority-commitment to the decision sharing process is necessary in the beginning. Prior to implementation there should be agreement as to acceptable evidence to signify success. Clear delineations of the responsibilities necessary for accepting progress toward shared decision making and for determining what processes or procedures should be modified as the group moves toward its desired goal should be included in such evidence.

9. When is the best time to move toward shared decision making--when a new principal arrives?

We have inconclusive evidence at this time; however, to determine when the "best" time is to move toward shared decision making one should keep in mind that the process involves major changes. It is unlikely, therefore, that the best time would be at the arrival of a new principal. Such situations are already marked by higher levels of change. Generally, a new principal has a great deal to learn in a relatively short period of time about operations of the school, personalities of the individuals at the school, etc. Because of these existing complexities, it seems reasonable that undertaking a separate process at the very outset would further complicate matters.

10. If you are changing the norms of the institution, what is the strategy? How do you keep it from backfiring?

There are no sure-fire, clear-cut steps which an institution can use in moving toward new norms, values, etc. Past experience has shown that some schools have participated in training sessions whereby they begin by (1) identifying individual values, then (2) determining discrepancies between their values and the institutional valeus, then (3) planning for change upon this analytic base. We have insufficient information at this time, however, to indicate how this procedure might be made more reliable; moreover, there is some evidence to support the contention that some schools may find it fairly easy to agree, philosophically, with a change idea. When staffs begin to put this philosophy into practice, however, individuals can differ on the original assumptions which may not have been fully understood or communicated. Perhaps an emphasis on complete communications is critical to all change processes.

11. How do you know when the local administrator is clear about what his goals are for shared decision making?

At this time there is no way, in advance, that people can determine the "real goals" of the local administrator relative to shared decision making. Indeed, if trust has not been sufficiently developed between the decision making group and administration, reasonable doubt exists that the process can be potentially successful. Naturally, the administrator may demonstrate through his practice, belief in and support of shared decision making. One way in which this is demonstrated is when both he and members of the decision making group agree on the criteria for assessing his behavior. The criteria can then help to determine if the implementation process is successful.

12. How does one know if the principal has adequate knowledge of the techniques needed for shared decision making?

To determine when an administrator is "ready" to engage in shared decision making will require sophisticated evaluation techniques. Such techniques are not currently available. In addition, those who have been involved over the past four or five years recognize they must continue to modify and improve their own processes so that final indicators may be impossible to determine. Determining when an individual and/ or group is ready to engage in shared decision making may be a "moot" point. Information about people who may assist in assessment processes is available from Dr. Raymond G. Melton, Director, National Cluster Coordination Center, 2418 Hatton Street, Sarasota, Florida 33577.

13. How can the readiness of all the various people to be involved in the process be assessed?

As with principals, such readiness can be elusive to traditional evaluation processes. See above Item #12.

14. Should staff be selected on the bases of their qualifications or interests in particular areas of shared decision making?

Criteria for selecting staff on the bases of their qualifications or interest in shared decision making have not been fully researched. Indications are that the more open the individual, the more he may work effectively in shared decision making. A number of instruments are available to help measure individual openness. Guidance in locating such materials may be obtained from professional testing companies and educational research centers throughout the country.

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15. Should staff be selected on the bases of their personal characteristics and then mould the system to meet their characteristics?

It seems reasonable, based upon empirical information from selected schools involved in shared decision making, that personality characteristics are a very important component of staff selection. Once the individuals have been selected, however, the system should be designed to serve their interests rather than vice versa. This ideal does not often occur so that modifications in both the system and the individuals involved is common.

16. How is "openness to help people look at themselves" established?

There is a tendency in educators to devise ways for changing others before determining ways for self change. Thus, it has been difficult to encourage some of the changes which are basic to shared decision group cooperation. Some schools have found it beneficial to haveeach individual clarify his/her own values (privately) and then to compare their own values with the values of the educational institution to locate obvious discrepancies.

17. What can be done about people who block the shared decision making process, i. e., (1) people who have decision making authority but are unwilling to share it with others, and (2) people who give lip service to the process but don't really support it?

Empirical evidence tends to support some steps to be taken with people who are initially unwilling to accept shared decision making because of their own level in the hierarchy of the organization. It appears that a superintendent is often much more reluctant to change than is a student or a teacher. (Personal and legal factors are undoubtedly important here). Sometimes individuals fail to comply with operating procedures because they are ignorant of the procedures. Some people make errors of omission quite inadvertently. Such problems often can be handled quickly through rapid, open feedback communications. On the other hand, confrontation tactics sometimes produce the best results with oeople who tend to give lip service to shared decision making while "reserving" much hierarchical power over decisions.

18. What are the changing kinds of trust in the group when new members come in?

Groups go through a series of changes as trust is being developed.

When group members begin to feel that confrontations can be based upon substantive issues rather than upon individual personality differences. then the power of a group may begin to grow tremendously. Two major problems may, however, remain. One is the "in-group - out-group syndrome" whereby the members of a decision making group get progressively close-knit and the people left outside feel as if they are not part of the action. This is a time when informal decision making powers have become inordinately strong. The second problem has to do with the changes in the personality composition of the group. When new members join the group the group may take considerable time to allow new members acceptance (and this often happens at the very time the member is trying to learn both formal and informal operating procedures). We know relatively little about the problems in detail, except that they exist and that attention must be given each of the problems as they occur.

19. How long does it take for a decision making group to reach a reasonable level of competency?

No specific time can be counted on for a decision making group to reach its optimum level of operation. Some schools operating for five years have realized that their groups are functional but they have not met the requisite level of their own expectations. Research literature offers some help in that it indicates that some groups can be established in a relatively short period of time under specific experimental conditions; however, these conditions occur rarely, if ever, in most public school settings. Interpersonal support and an atmosphere of trust seem to be key elements in the establishment of effective working groups.

20. How can confidence in a group process be established?

Probably the best way to affirm confidence in a group is by demonstrating that their decisions can be implemented. Too often groups express the feeling that their efforts and output are insignificant and go unimplemented. It may be a good idea for School Districts to provide some sort of recognition to decision making groups as they embark on largely uncharted paths where the trail can often be obscure and tedious.

21. Should participants be required to become involved or should participation be strictly voluntary?

From existing information, it seems unrealistic to expect that required participation can succeed. An *Appropriateness of Decision*

Making training package has been useful in some schools in determining some of the areas in which individuals in a group may have special interest and expertise. The Appropriateness of Decision Making training package is available from Dr. Raymond G. Melton, Director, National Cluster Coordination Center, 2418 Hatton Street, Sarasota, Florida 33577.

22. How does the role of the administrator change when decision making is decentralized?

Perhaps the greatest change in the role of an administrator is his movement away from traditional role behavior toward the new role of "school climate leader." Such a role requires that he know about communication processes, how decisions affect various people and about the legal aspects of decisions. The administrator must become a better listener and must be able to determine the kinds of data needed by the decision making group. His role becomes that of a facilitator for action.

23. What are the problems with professional space?

Professional space may be synonymous with a kind of "territorial rights." In traditional organizations, territorial rights are often clearly delineated. When teachers or students begin to share in decisions, they may appear to step beyond the usual boundaries established by traditional administrators. After direct confrontations with such trespasses, new understandings, however less clearly demarcated, may be established. The process can be equally frustrating to all those involved.

24. Do participants represent (a) a group of people or (b) themselves or (c) the total school and its needs or (d) a department or other parochial interests?

Members of the decision making group should represent the total school; that is, they should be concerned about children and the instructional program. This commitment, however, may fail to occur until the group gains sufficient trust in its own operation. Where small groups are allowed to be very closed, individual or parochial interests prevail.

25. How does the administrator keep others from thinking the "kids" or the "teachers" are running the school rather than the principal?

The general public, the Board, and the Superintendent have traditionally looked to the principal for leadership in many areas (be they instruction, discipline, establishing administrative practices) failing to realize that the emphasis of power can shift in a responsible manner. The principal must, therefore, attempt to re-educate many people in terms of the efficacy of shared decision making. Then the shift can be made over time from principal as sole leader to the group basis for leadership. Obviously, a principal must be a secure individual with good rapport if he is to manage this challenging set of basic changes.

POST TEST

Directions: Circle the response which is correct.

1. There are still many factors about personality characteristics and institutional values that we don't fully understand. True False

2. Because of the workshops, self-study, etc., proposed in this shared decision making training package, the professional literature suggests that profound, significant changes in behavior can be expected of those completing this training package. True False

3. The literature suggests that before one can have trust in others it is important that he know himself. True False

4. There are frequently discrepancies between values that are personal and the values practiced in work settings. True False

5. In schools where shared decision making can be expected to function well, the principal must have a value system that is consistent with the notion of decentralized authority. True False

6. Generally the important values of individuals have been at least partially determined by their past successful experiences in life. True False

7. Schools that have staff members with philosophical values very different from each other are more likely to have success with shared decision making than schools that have staff members whose values are more similar. True False

8. Teachers are usually unable to identify resolutions to problems in schools where they work. True False

9. Most individuals seem prone to look at others before they look at themselves. True False

POST TEST ANSWERS

1. True
2. False
3. True
4. True
5. True
6. True
7. False
8. False
9. True

PART VI - AFTERWORD

There is much we do not know regarding personality characteristics and institutional norms and values, and it is only through explorations by educators and researchers seeking meaningful change that we can begin to understand such complex issues.

In the workshop which follows, you will have an opportunity to examine some of your own personality characteristics and values and to compare these with those of other members of your decision making group, and those of the work setting of which you are a part. Hopefully, you will gain valuable insight into the functioning of your decision making group.

SHARED DECISION MAKING:
PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS
AND
INSTITUTIONAL VALUES

SECTION II

WORKSHOP

Rodger E. Cryer
Project Director

James Olivero, Ed. D.
Prime Consultant

Ms. Wendy Portnuff
Project Consultant

Hollis M. Moore, Ph. D.
Consultant

Virgil S. Hollis
Superintendent
Marin County Schools

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Introduction

The training package is written in such a way that it first addresses the issue of the personality characteristics of the principal and other group members; the program then takes a look at the personality values of the individual members in the decision making group; finally, the program helps participants to look at how their individual and collective philosophies cause institutional norms and values to be established. Three paper-and-pencil exercises are used to raise issues and to stimulate discussion. Finally, the group formulates plans for follow-up activities to take place at the local school.

Editor's Foreword - Leader's Instructions:

This training package is designed for use by members of the staff and administration in a school who are considering shared decision making and who are familiar with the material contained in Personality Characteristics & Institutional Values, Section I. The package should be read first by a person who might then serve as "leader" for the experience. This "leader" should not be a regular member of the group. He should also be familiar with Personality Characteristics & Institutional Values, Section I. The leader will be responsible for supplying the following:

1. One copy each of the training package.
2. Paper, pencils, pads, newsprint, felt-tip markers and other conference materials as may be desirable.
3. A setting where participants can work through the training package relatively uninterrupted.

The amount of time to work through this package should be approximately 6 to 8 hours. It is recommended that training sessions be initiated one evening and carried out through noon of the second day. This allows time to think and digest the ideas generated during the earlier working session.

A review of both available research literature as well as direct feedback from practitioners had determined the need for such a package. A careful search was made to locate training packages which would help interested educators deal with variables of personality characteristics and institutional values; unfortunately, appropriate training programs could not be located by the authors. This package--

as modest as it is in its earliest stages of development--is the humble "beginning" to achieve greater insight into these complex issues.

The leader and the group should understand that there is much we do not know about preparing people for shared decision making. There are serious questions about whether some people can or want to participate in shared decision making.

As the leader uses the package, he will undoubtedly find that this training package is not a panacea. There are so many things we do not understand about the influence of personality characteristics and institutional values that this training package only begins to approach some of the elements of this dimension of shared decision making.

There may be times when situations arise during the implementation of suggested training sequences when the "leader" may feel alone because the package may not appear to contain some of the necessary resources for the leader's specific predicament. Candidly, however, the leader should be warned that what is available in the package (to the best of our current knowledge) reflects the "state of the art"!

This training package, then, represents a beginning! The authors encourage all users of the package to analyze and record the times when they have felt uncertain due to voids in the package and to report your struggles and your recoveries from the situations to Dr. Raymond G. Melton, Director, National Cluster Coordination Center, 2418 Hatton Street, Sarasota, Florida 33577 or to your source of this training program. This feedback may be useful subsequent developmental efforts.

PERFORMANCE OBJECTIVES

This training package has three specific objectives:

1. Given the need to identify personal values, participants in the workshop will complete the Achievement Motivation Program profile and will identify the top five and lowest five values.

Evidence: Participants (teachers and administrator) will have completed profiles and ranked five-sort inventory guides. In addition, based upon observations of the workshop leader and under his supervision, participants will discuss their profiles with each other.

2. Given the need to determine personal values as they relate to school practices, all participants will complete the instrument "Where Do You Stand?" indicating by an "X" each individual's personal attitudes and indicating by an "O" each person's perceptions of his schools operational policies and practices.

Evidence: A completed "Where Do You Stand?" instrument will be available for each participant. In addition, based upon observations of the workshop leader, participants will discuss the match-mismatch relationships between personal values of group members and the institutional practices.

3. Given the need to follow up locally some of the information and skills acquired at the workshop, the participants (collectively) will establish and write a plan for subsequent action.

Evidence: Participants will prepare a written plan prior to departure from the workshop. The plan will be duplicated and made available to each member of the workshop. The plan for subsequent action should include: (a) goals, (2) ideas for implementing activities, (3) dates for initiating and completing activities, and (4) names of individuals to be responsible for the action.

PART I - PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS

Due to legal responsibilities and established role expectations of the principal and teachers, the shift from centralized to decentralized shared decision making can be difficult for a school and for a school district. Two factors seem to contribute heavily to this problem:

1. Some personalities have a strong drive and need to control others; while other personalities have a strong need to be controlled by others; and,
2. Most administrators have been in training programs where they were required to supply answers rather than to assist others in arriving at answers; while most teachers have been trained to expect answers from administrators rather than to participate in arriving at answers.

The principal may be the one who can best insure that a shift to greatersharing of decision making is at least attempted in a school. A key to much of the effectiveness of a decision making group in a school may be the principal's understanding of his own personality characteristics as they relate to the demands of his role in shared decision making. Also important is the understanding other group members have of their own needs in this respect.

At least theoretically, it is helpful for the group members to assess their need to control and be controlled by others. The instrument suggested for this purpose is the FIRO-B (Fundamental Interpersonal Relations-Behavior) instrument. This measurement device may be useful to the entire group in accordance with directions which accompany this personality scale.*

---

* Copies of FIRO-B Scales, by William C. Shutz, are available to qualified school psychologists from Consulting Psychologists Press, Inc., 577 College Ave., Palo Alto, Ca. 94306

PART II - PERSONAL AND INDIVIDUAL VALUES

Empirical evidence suggests that the more open the individual, the more effectively he may work in shared decision making. This section of the workshop is designed to encourage individual growth toward effective openness in interpersonal relationships. You will examine both individual and group values through the use of the Achievement Motivation Program[1] instruments. The introduction to the program states:

The purpose of this section of the workshop is to help participants:

1. relate to each other constructively through free and open communication;
2. recognize and support each others' unique growth patterns and latent, undiscovered potentials;
3. clarify individual valeus, discovering what is important to YOU; and
4. handle change more effectively because YOU become more positive in attitude and aware of your uniqueness, YOU discover new approaches to managing your life creatively.

Within an affirming atmosphere, individual growth and learning take place.

---

[1] A non-profit program of the W. Clement and Jessie V. Stone Foundation. 1972, W. Clement and Jessie V. Stone Foundation. All Rights Reserved. Permission to include references to this material has been granted and is hereby acknowledged.

A. Identifying Values Through Meaningful Experiences

In preparation for this portion of the workshop, will you reflect on the "meaningful situations" of your past that you consider successful. Our lives are made up of "little" successes that occur day by day. Each of us has a unique reservoir of successful experiences that have been meaningful and growth-producing. Becoming consciously aware of your SUCCESSFUL PAST will aid you in planning effectively in the future.

Using "key" words, list below several meaningful experiences. The "largeness" or "smallness" of these experiences as perceived by other people is NOT important--the important consideration is that they are meaningful to YOU.

It might be helpful to divide these meaningful experiences into "chapters" in your life, for example, elementary school, high school, and after high school; or perhaps family, social, and professional; or geographical locations, "when I lived in Chicago..."

CHAPTERS

1.

2.

3.

1.

2.

3.

1.

2.

3.

WE ALL HAVE NEEDS

To have enjoyed the successes that you have listed on the previous page, you have satisfied some specific needs. We are aware of our physical needs such as eating, breathing, and sleeping, which, if not met, will endanger our lives. We have certain psychological needs which also must be met if we are to continue to grow and be productive as emotionally and physically healthy human beings. These psychological needs are not as easily discernible as the obvious physical needs.

Across the top of the chart on the following page are eight boxes. Write one of your MEANINGFUL EXPERIENCES in each of these boxes. Down the left-hand side is a column of needs. Take your successes, one at a time, and read the complete left-hand column. Place a check in those boxes that help explain why the experience was successful and meaningful to you. Check as many boxes as you feel apply in that specific experience. Repat the same process for each of your eight meaningful experiences.

After completing the chart, go back and circle the checks in each experience that you feel helped you MOST CLEARLY IDENTIFY the reason for this being a meaningful experience for you.

Count the number of times you have circle specific needs and list below, IN RANK ORDER, the four or five needs occurring most frequently.

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

EXPERIENCES								
Doing what I want to do								
Doing things the way I think they should be done								
Using skill or know-how								
Learning new things								
Getting people to do what I want them to do.								
My sense of self-respect								
My integrity								
Strengthening my feeling of acceptance among the people I work with								
Strengthening my feeling of acceptance among the people I see socially								
Strengthening my hold on my job or assuring myself of continued business or income								
Strengthening my feeling of love and acceptance within my family or among my close friends								
Getting a new job or a promotion, or generating new business or more income								
Obtaining insurance, or accumulating savings, or doing something toward my retirement								
Having adequate shelter								
Avoiding bodily harm								
Having enough to eat and drink								
Staying alive								

By exploring these meaningful experiences interpreted as "successes," you have gained some valuable insight into your needs that were satisfied. We will talk more about this in the workshop.

Before proceding with the next part of this workshop package, the small group may wish to share one "success" experience with others. This may help to encourage openness among members of the group.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

B. THE FIVE SORT VALUE INVENTORY

This part of the instrument is designed to help you consider, on a more intellectual level, the values that have been important to you.

Each of the groups below contains five values. In the parenthesis preceding each value, place a number from 1 to 5. Number 1 represents your HIGHEST ranking value in that group; number 5 represents the value you rank the least in that group. Be sure to number each value, and you must give a different rating to each value listed in that group of five. Repeat the same process for all 21 groups.

1. ( ) Achievement
( ) Altruism
( ) Justice
( ) Religious Faith
( ) Wealth

2. ( ) Altruism
( ) Autonomy
( ) Loyalty
( ) Power
( ) Recognition

3. ( ) Creativity
( ) Love
( ) Pleasure
( ) Recognition
( ) Wealth

4. ( ) Aesthetics
( ) Justice
( ) Pleasure
( ) Power
( ) Wisdom

5. ( ) Altruism
( ) Honesty
( ) Love
( ) Physical Appearance
( ) Wisdom

6. ( ) Achievement
( ) Aesthetics
( ) Health
( ) Honesty
( ) Recognition

7. ( ) Achievement
( ) Autonomy
( ) Physical Appearance
( ) Pleasure
( ) Skill

8. ( ) Autonomy
( ) Emotional Well Being
( ) Wealth
( ) Health
( ) Wisdom

9. ( ) Honesty
( ) Knowledge
( ) Power
( ) Skill
( ) Wealth

10. ( ) Achievement
( ) Emotional Well Being
( ) Love
( ) Morality
( ) Power

11. ( ) Aesthetics
( ) Autonomy
( ) Knowledge
( ) Love
( ) Religious Faith

12. ( ) Aesthetics
( ) Loyalty
( ) Morality
( ) Physical Appearance
( ) Wealth

13. ( ) Creativity
( ) Health
( ) Physical Appearance
( ) Power
( ) Religious Faith

14. ( ) Health
( ) Justice
( ) Love
( ) Loyalty
( ) Skill

15. ( ) Aesthetics
( ) Altruism
( ) Creativity
( ) Emotional Well Being
( ) Skill

16. ( ) Emotional Well Being
( ) Justice
( ) Knowledge
( ) Physical Appearance
( ) Recognition

17. ( ) Altruism
( ) Health
( ) Knowledge
( ) Morality
( ) Pleasure

18. ( ) Morality
( ) R cognition
( ) Religious Faith
( ) Skill
( ) Wisdom

19. ( ) Emotional Well Being
( ) Honesty
( ) Loyalty
( ) Pleasure
( ) Religious Faith

20. ( ) Achievement
( ) Creativity
( ) Knowledge
( ) Loyalty
( ) Wisdom

21. ( ) Autonomy
( ) Creativity
( ) Honesty
( ) Justice
( ) Morality

To summarize the results of the previous exercise, enter the numbers you recorded (for the first set of five) in the first box for each of those five values below. Each value occurs five times, so when you are through recording all 21 sets of five, you will have five entries for each value. Add those five numbers across. The TOTALS column will then give you some idea of the respective weights you give to the values involved. Remember, the lower the number in the TOTALS column, the higher that value ranks in YOUR priorities.

It is possible from this exercise to ascertain the top four or five most important values and the lowest four or five values. (Middle values are a little more susceptible to change in terms of arriving at a consisten priority sequence due to routine fluctuations in individual choices or responses.)

1. Achievement						
2. Aesthetic						
3. Altruism						
4. Autonomy						
5. Creativity						
6. Emotional Well Being						
7. Health						
8. Honesty						
9. Justice						
10. Knowledge						
11. Love						
12. Loyalty						
13. Morality						
14. Physical Appearance						
15. Pleasure						
16. Power						
17. Recognition						
18. Religious Faith						
19. Skill						
20. Wealth						
21. Wisdom						

INTERPRETING INFORMATION FROM THE ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION PROGRAM

Now that you have completed the two sections of the Achievement Motivation Program, you should have a better understanding of values which are important to you in practice, and the values that seem intellectually important. At least theoretically there should be a reasonably good match between the two.

Take some time to discuss these results and the implications they may have on your decision making group.

Proceed to the next section of the program.

There are indications that the greater the agreement between the personal values of individual staff members and the institutional practices reflecting these values, the greater the probability that shared decision making will function smoothly. It may be that this relationship is the most basic and critical factor affecting group decision making.

The following questionnaire "Where Do You Stand?" is designed to measure this relationship. Please complete the questionnaire according to the instructions.

A. WHERE DO YOU STAND?

Instructions

1. Make a mark "X" somewhere along each line which best represents your own feelings about each statement.

2. Make a mark "O" somewhere along each line which best represents how you feel the school is functioning relative to each of the statements.

ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT CHILDREN'S LEARNING:

MOTIVATION:

Assumption 1: Children are innately curious and will explore their environment without adult intervention.

Strongly Agree	Agree	No strong Feeling	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Assumption 2: Exploratory behavior is self-perpetuating.

Strongly Agree	Agree	No Strong Feeling	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

CONDITIONS FOR LEARNING:

Assumption 3: The child will display natural exploratory behavior if he is not threatened.

Strongly Agree	Agree	No Strong Feeling	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Assumption 4: Confidence in self is highly related to capacity for learning and for making important choices affecting one's learning.

Strongly Agree	Agree	No Strong Feeling	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Assumption 5: Active exploration in a rich environment, offering a wide array of manipulative materials, will facilitate children's learning.

Strongly Agree	Agree	No Strong Feeling	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Assumption 6: Play is not distinguished from work as the predominant mode of learning in early childhood.

Strongly Agree	Agree	No Strong Feeling	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Assumption 7: Children have both the competence and the right to make significant decisions concerning their own learning.

Strongly Agree	Agree	No Strong Feeling	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Assumption 8: Children will be likely to learn if they are given considerable choice in the selection of the materials they wish to work with and in the choice of questions they wish to pursue with respect to those materials.

Strongly Agree	Agree	No Strong Feeling	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Assumption 9: Given the opportunity, children will choose to engage in activities which will be of high interest to them.

Strongly Agree	Agree	No Strong Feeling	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Assumption 10: If a child is fully involved in and is having fun with an activity, learning is taking place.

Strongly Agree	Agree	No Strong Feeling	Disagree	Strongly

SOCIAL LEARNING:

Assumption 11: When two or more children are interested in exploring the same problem or the same materials, they will often choose to collaborate in some way.

Strongly Agree	Agree	No Strong Feeling	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Assumption 12: When a child learns something which is important to him, he will wish to share it with others.

Strongly Agree	Agree	No Strong Feeling	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

INTELLECTUAL DEVELOPMENT:

Assumption 13: Concept formation proceeds very slowly.

Strongly Agree	Agree	No Strong Feeling	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Assumption 14: Children learn and develop intellectually not only at their own rate but in their own style.

Strongly Agree	Agree	No Strong Feeling	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Assumption 15: Children pass through similar stages of intellectual development each in his own way and his own rate and in his own time.

Strongly Agree	Agree	No Strong Feeling	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Assumption 16: Intellectual growth and development take place through a sequence of concrete experiences followed by abstractions.

Strongly Agree	Agree	No Strong Feeling	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Assumption 17: Verbal abstractions should follow direct experience with objects and ideas, not precede them or substitute for them.

Strongly Agree	Agree	No Strong Feeling	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

EVALUATION:

Assumption 18: The preferred source of verification for a child's solution to a problem comes through the materials he is working with.

Strongly Agree	Agree	No Strong Feeling	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Assumption 19: Errors are necessarily a part of the learning process; they are to be expected and even desired for they contain information essential for further learning.

Strongly Agree	Agree	No Strong Feeling	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Assumption 20: Those qualities of a person's learning which can be carefully measured are not necessarily the most important.

Strongly Agree	Agree	No Strong Feeling	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Assumption 21: Objective measures of performance may have a negative effect upon learning.

Strongly Agree	Agree	No Strong Feeling	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Assumption 22: Learning is best assessed intuitively, by direct observation.

Strongly Agree	Agree	No Strong Feeling	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Assumption 23: The best way of evaluating the effect of the school experience on the child is to observe him over a long period of time.

Strongly Agree	Agree	No Strong Feeling	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Assumption 24: The best measure of a child's work is his work.

Strongly Agree	Agree	No Strong Feeling	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

II. ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT KNOWLEDGE

Assumption 25: The quality of being is more important than the quality of knowing; knowledge is a means of education, not its end. The final test of an education is what a man is, not what he knows.

Strongly Agree	Agree	No Strong Feeling	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Assumption 26: Knowledge is a function of one's personal integration of experience and therefore does not fall into neatly separate categories or "disciplines."

Strongly Agree	Agree	No Strong Feeling	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Assumption 27: The structure of knowledge is personal and idiosyncratic; it is a function of the synthesis of each individual's experience with the world.

Strongly Agree	Agree	No Strong Feeling	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Assumption 28: Little or no knowledge exists which it is essential for everyone to acquire.

Strongly Agree	Agree	No Strong Feeling	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Assumption 29: It is possible, even likely, that an individual may learn and possess knowledge of a phenomenon and yet be unable to display it publicly. Knowledge resides with the knower, not in its public expression.

Strongly Agree	Agree	No Strong Feeling	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

B. Interpreting the Results of the "Where Do You Stand?" Questionnaire:

When the questionnaires have been completed all the participants together should go through and identify the 10 assumptions which have the greatest discrepancy between what they believe is happening and what they believe should happen. These should then be tallied. Frequently there will be several assumptions which stand out as illustrating commonly shared perceptions of discrepancies between personal values and perceived practice (or between actual and desired). These major discrepancies should be written on a chart or blackboard so that all participants can see and discuss the implications of these significant discrepancies.

Reconvene the same small groups established earlier to discuss and analyze why such divergence between values and practices might occur in these major areas of discrepancy as most frequently perceived by members of the group. It will be helpful to establish a time to return to the large group to share the results of the small group discussions. Be sure to allow adequate time for discussions in the small groups. The analysis of each of the assumptions may become very involved.

It should be remembered that the small groups have two primary charges for their dialogues; and it may be necessary for one individual in each group to take responsibility for maintaining the task focus. The group should:

1. Identify the major reasons why they believe there is a difference between theory and practice (recording the reasons on newsprint pads).

2. Identify at least three alternatives (brainstorm) for removing the constraints identified on #1 above. (Write the suggested solutions on the newsprint pads).*

---

* An interesting technique has been used where the ideas have been written with felt tip pens on clear plastic and then shown in an overhead projector. The plastic sheets (8 1/2 x 11) can later be Xeroxed and distributed to participants for their own notes.

PART IV - FOCUSING THE WORKSHOP EXPERIENCE

A decision making group exists to make decisions when there are tasks to be accomplished and/or problems to be resolved. Frequently, however, the lack of understanding of personal needs and value conflicts within a group interferes with the task focus, and the group finds itself unable to perform its decision making function effectively. The experiences in this workshop thus far were designed:

1. to enable you to gain an awareness and understanding of some of the factors which interfere with your task focus; and
2. to begin to establish some basic trust in each other and therefore in the group.

In this last part of the workshop you will develop a plan for future action to eliminate some of the value and need conflicts which interfere with the task focus of your group.

PART V - ACTION PLANS FOR FOLLOW UP:

To begin to establish plans for action at your specific school or district location, you should share the results of the brainstorming session you have just completed. Combine the lists of constraints to conflict resolution, and the alternative solutions.

The group now has the following four charges:

1. Identify additional problems of personality variables and institutional values needing discussion by other members of the staff (where some members of the staff were unable to be included in the workshop).
2. Identify possible alternatives for problem resolution.
3. Solicit names of people who might be willing to be responsible for carrying out the tasks listed above.
4. Establish deadlines for completing the tasks to be accomplished.

Each of the foregoing points should be written on large newsprint paper by one or more member of the group, usually the one responsible for reporting to the large group. This is an important activity because this planning will set the direction for future actions. It is imperative that plans for the future be given adequate time and attention and that the plans be made at the workshop. Otherwise, appropriate follow-up will be less likely to occur.

SHARED DECISION MAKING:

DECISION MAKING MODELS

A DISCUSSION GUIDE

Mr. Rodger E. Cryer
Project Director

Mr. Martin Harris
Prime Consultant

Dr. Virgil S. Hollis
Superintendent
Marin County Schools

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EDITOR'S FOREWARD

Leader's Instructions

This discussion guide is designed to be used by a group of educators who anticipate taking part in or wish to improve a decision making group. The package should first be read by a person who might then serve as "leader" for the experience. This "leader" can be responsible for supplying the following:

1. One copy each of the discussion guide,
2. Two sheets of scratch paper and a pencil for each participant,
3. Setting where the participants can work through the training package relatively uninterrupted.

The amount of time to work through this package should be approximately one 8-hour day maximum.

INTRODUCTION AND OBJECTIVES

The objectives of this training package are:

1) to familiarize you with three models of decision making,
2) to discuss critical factors to be considered in designing shared decision making models, and
3) to analyze the advantages and disadvantages of three typical decision making models.

The package consists of five parts. Part I is an individual exercise. After completing this you should read Part II, which introduces three types of decisions. A group exercise follows in Part III. Part IV discusses the factors to be considered in designing shared decision making models, while Part V analyzes three such models.

PART I - INDIVIDUAL EXERCISE

On the following page you will find an exercise which you should take approximately fifteen minutes to complete.*

After completing the exercise you should read Part II of this training manual. Part III is a group exercise using the results of the individual exercise in Part I.

---

* Note: Anyone already having experienced this exercise should still participate, but not disclose the significance of the exercise until the following discussion.

LOST ON THE MOON

Individual Worksheet

The Situation: Your spaceship has just crash-landed on the lighted side of the moon. You were scheduled to rendezvous with a mother ship 200 miles away on the lighted surface of the moon, but the rough landing has ruined your ship and destroyed all the equipment on board, except for the 15 items listed below.

Due to technical difficulties the mother ship cannot come to you. You must go to it. Your crew's survival depends on reaching the mother ship, so you must choose the most critical items available for the 200-mile trip. Your task is to rank the 15 items in terms of their importance for survival. Place number one by the most important item, number two by the second most important, and so on through number 15, the least important, You will have fifteen minutes to make the ranking.

Supplies:

_____ Box of matches

_____ Food concentrate

_____ Fifty feet of nylon rope

_____ Parachute silk

_____ Solar-powered portable hearing unit

_____ Two .45-caliber pistols

_____ One case of dehydrated milk

_____ Two 100-pound tanks of oxygen

_____ Stellar map (of the moon's constellation)

_____ Self-inflating life raft

_____ Magnetic compass

_____ Five gallons of water

_____ Signal flares

_____ First-aid kit containing injection needles

_____ Solar-powered FM receiver-transmitter

PART II - DECISION MAKING

WHAT IS DECISION MAKING?

We are all constantly making decisions. Each day we make decisions about what to eat, what to wear, what to do in our spare time. Less frequently we make decisions about where to go on vacation, which house to buy, which job offer to take. Many of us are also fortunate to be able to make many decisions about what we shall do at our place of work and how we shall do it.

But what is it, this thing we all do all the time? There are many definitions of decision making, ranging from the very simple to the very erudite. For the purpose of this discussion, we will begin with a fairly simple definition:

> decision making is the act of specifying future actions or events.

That is, a decision is a statement of what may happen in the future. This simple definition covers decision making processes as simple as what to eat for dinner, to those as complex as whether or not to make a pre-emptive nuclear strike against an enemy nation.

Individuals make decisions that affect themselves or others. So do groups. The influence, or power, that a decision has is often related to the power of the individual or group that makes it. For example, an individual citizen may decide that traffic signals are needed at a particular junction, but his decision won't put them there. Some person, or group, with a position of authority within local government has to agree to implement the decision before the signals are actually installed.

Specifying a future action or event (making a decision) will not in itself ensure that that action or event will take place. There is an important relationship between the ability to make decisions and the power to ensure that they are implemented. This idea is further explored in the shared decision making training package entitled "Accountability for Decisions."

We have defined decision making as the act of specifying future actions or events. Does this mean that there is only one way of making a decision? Not at all. There are three broad categories, or types, of decision making with which we should become familiar.

WHAT ARE THE THREE TYPES OF DECISION MAKING?

On the face of it, decisions are made in many different ways, but all decisions may be placed into one of three broad categories:

1. rational decision making
2. bureaucratic decision making
3. political decision making

BUT DON'T WE ALL MAKE RATIONAL DECISIONS?

Well, we all think that "we" do, even if few other people seem to! However, if we adopt a fairly strict definition of rational decision making, then we shall see that, in fact, very few truly rational decisions are made by anyone, anywhere.*

A truly rational decision is one in which, given a specific problem requiring a decision (a future course of action to be specified):

1) all possible alternative courses of action are listed.

2) all possible consequences of each alternative course of action are listed, and

3) the course of action that best meets the criteria established for a decision about this problem is chosen as the decision to be implemented.

We may feel that very often we do just that in our lives, but it is doubtful that we often find all alternatives and all consequences before choosing a particular course of action. The amount of effort involved in making truly rational decisions about even simple things is very great, and typically we can't afford that much energy. Even if we try to make a good, rational decision, we cannot be sure that we have listed all the possible alternatives and consequences, since many may be outside the limits of our experience. As we shall see later, however, decision making that approaches the rational type is becoming more common.

AREN'T BUREAUCRATIC DECISIONS BAD DECISIONS?

Not necessarily. The word bureaucratic is not used here in a negative sense (although frequently this is the case in normal conversation). Bureaucracies are often characterized as hierarchical, unyielding, unthinking, impersonal organizations which are bad places for people to be. Indeed, they often are, but they may also represent one of the best ways we know of to organize some elements within our increasingly complex technological world. Whatever the truth is about them, bureaucratic decision making is related to the view of bureaucratic organizations as being better equipped to deal with a complex world.

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* See: Simon, Herbert A., Administrative Behavior, Second Edition. New York: The Free Press, 1965 for a more detailed technical discussion.

Pure bureaucratic decisions can be made by a computer as well, and frequently better, than by a human being. Bureaucratic decision making is decision making by rule: regulations, published standards, guidelines, etc., e. g., if such and such occurs, do so and so. Thus, by the rule: "If a man clocks in to his job not more than 15 minutes late, withhold 15 minutes pay"; then when a man clocks in 4 minutes late, he loses 15 minutes pay.

Now we may argue that this is a bad rule, for he may have been late for any number of reasons, many of which were beyond his control. Still, it is possible to list any number of such rules, many of which would be associated with large, bureaucratic organizations.

So, aren't bureaucratic decisions bad? No, they are not necessarily bad. Consider this rule: "When the alarm rings, crews will immediately man their fire engines and proceed to the address given them by the dispatcher." It is a bureaucratic rule that leads to a bureaucratic decision --when the alarm sounds, jump on the fire engine and go. Firemen don't sit around and talk about it, or ignore it because there have been two false alarms today or because they are eating. Most would agree that society, and firemen, regard that as a very good decision. Few people would want firemen to make the decision to respond to the alarm in any other way.

But now we seem to be talking about bureaucratic rules. What happened to bureaucratic decision making? The two are, of course, opposite sides of the same coin. A bureaucratic rule might state:

If A occurs, do B.

When an individual is faced with situation A, he makes a bureaucratic type decision if he applies the rule and does B. If you like, the individual's obligation is to obey the rule.

The rule to be obeyed may be a "good" rule or a "bad" rule, depending upon who is judging it. Most of the rules mentioned above are "good" rules. Other bureaucratic rules may be good for, say, 80% of the people or situations to which they are applied, but bad for the rest. In any event, bureaucratic decision making if implemented fully, is rarely a very complex or exciting process for the individual.

Bureaucratic decision making essentially refers to the process of applying pre-determined courses of action to situations as they occur. There are, as we shall see later, variants of pure bureaucratic decision making.

We have now suggested that truly rational decisions are very difficult to make and that although bureaucratic decision making may be good or bad, it is rarely exciting. This brings us to the third type -- political decision making.

BUT SHOULDN'T EDUCATORS STAY AWAY FROM POLITICAL DECISIONS?

Conventional wisdom has said yes, educators should stay away from politics. This view dates from the struggle, at the end of the nineteenth century and beginning of the twentieth, by professional educators to wrest control of schools from party ward bosses in large cities. Schools should be run by professionals and should be well insulated from partisan politics and patronage, was the basic argument. Although professional educators won the first battle, the debate continues under the guise of community control, community participation, etc.

However, political decision making refers not only to partisan politics per se, but also to the political process of bargaining and compromise amongst individuals and groups holding differing views. It is sometimes called a democratic process when each individual has a right to speak up on issues and have some influence on the decisions which affect him.

In this more broad view, schools are political institutions. They are shaped by the needs, desires and wishes of many groups — school boards, administrators, teachers, parents, religious groups, state and federal governments, etc. All of these groups have had an effect on schools at one time or another. Although the degree each group has influenced the schools has varied, all have views on what schools are for and how they should be run. Each group has espoused their views in public.

Political decision making is concerned with the task of resolving the views of these different groups and arriving at some compromise that in some way may satisfy all parties involved. It is unfortunate that the words "political bargaining" and "political compromise" have, like the word "bureaucratic", strong negative overtones, particularly in educational settings. It is unfortunate because political decision making is the dominant form of decision making in most organizations, and schools are no exception.

For example, consider a debate in an elementary school over curriculum. Different groups of teachers have different preferences. Some want more emphasis on cognitive skills, some more emphasis on affective behaviors, some want to stress the development of psychomotor skills, while still others feel the present balance is just fine. Where the school has the responsibility for making broad curriculum decisions, all these groups need to be heard clearly but all cannot be fully accommodated. Compromises are reached so that, while no one group gets all it wanted, most are reasonably happy with the outcome.

This type of process occurs at every level within the school system, right through to the governing board of education. Of course, not all groups are heard at each level unless special precautions have been taken. This is really what shared decision making is all about. We should not be in any doubt, however, that shared decision making is essentially a political decision making process.

WHY DO I NEED TO KNOW ALL THAT?

This breakdown into rational, bureaucratic and political processes for decision making has proven to be useful for looking at many organizations such as the federal government, business enterprises, hospitals, social welfare agencies and schools.

It is important to understand the three decision making types because, as we shall see later, the type of decisions that have to be made are frequently determined by the setting in which they are made.

We have suggested that any given decision making process can rarely be described as purely rational, purely bureaucratic or purely political in nature.

Rational decisions are difficult to make because of the difficulties involved in finding all alternatives and all consequences of these alternatives. Yet we all tend to feel that rational decision making is the best and, indeed, the way most of us operate. In fact we often use a modified form of rational decision making called "satisfycing." We search for alternatives until we find one that is satisfactory. That is, it meets some minimum criteria we have established for a particular decision. It may not be the best available decision, but we are satisfied with it and can live with its consequences.

As you can see, satisfycing will greatly reduce the number of alternatives that we have to consider, for we stop searching when a satisfactory one is found. We also tend to search for solutions that we, or someone we know, has successfully implemented before. In this way we rather severely limit the scope of our search for alternatives by looking for "proven" or demonstrated alternatives.

Satisfycing has elements of rationality in it, but it also acknowledges the fact that we have neither the time nor the experience to indulge in purely rational decision making.

Similarly, much bureaucratic decision making is a modified version of the techniques described above. An individual making decisions frequently has discretion in rule selection or rule application. This is especially true in school settings. Rules are frequently of the form:

If A occurs, then do B or C.

For example, a judge can use discretion in setting punishments for convicted persons. Legal statutes frequently set maximum fines and/or prison sentences for specific crimes, but a judge uses his discretion in setting the appropriate penalty in each individual case.

Discretionary bureaucratic decisions, then are decisions that are made within some general rule, or guideline, for action.

Finally, as we all know, a political decision making process can easily be distorted if one or more of the participants has considerably greater power or influence than the others. In such cases, bargaining and compromise become almost non-existent, with the powerful tacitly implying that the weak may not even be included in the process unless they agree to abide by the *status quo*. Clearly, this can be a major problem in shared decision making where some of the participants, for example, administrators, are powerful by virtue of their role and status within the general school setting. This status may make them influential in some areas even in which they have little expertise. This seems to be because there there is an expectation that experts in one area should be experts in every area.

It is this abuse of power and status that is largely responsible for the negative attitude so many people have to the political process of bargaining and compromise.

Other training packages in this series deal with strategies for reducing status differences and interpersonal differences which often arise in shared decision making situations.

THEN WHICH TYPE OF DECISION MAKING SHOULD I USE?

As we have stated, shared decision making in organizations is essentially a political decision making process. However, elements of rationality also need to be present. Where groups are in conflict, (that is, having different solutions to the same problem), and are reasonably well balanced in terms of power to influence, there would seem to be an increased possibility for the rational approach to play a larger part in the decision making process.

Under these circumstances, decisions reached through bargaining and compromise will tend to display elements of rationality also. The three types of decision making described are not mutually exclusive, and in a complex world where decisions have to be made often and quickly, all three have an important part to play.

The remainder of this training package is addressed to the problem of designing a "model" of shared decision making. That is, a description of who is involved, their relationships with each other, how decisions are reached and implemented and how they are evaluated.

The relative importance given to arriving at speedy decisions, ensuring widespread participation, ensuring decisions that are satisfying to as many as possible,etc., will largely determine the model used for shared decision making in any particular setting.

WHAT'S A DECISION MAKING MODEL?

A model is a description, either verbal, pictorial or mathematical, or a process. The model allows us to make predictions about the process and its outcomes given certain imputs. Here's an example of a simple mathematic model:

$$a = 2b + 14$$

If we are given a value for a, we can use the model to predict the corresponding value of b.

Perhaps the most common form of a decision making model is a company's organization chart. It shows the relationships of

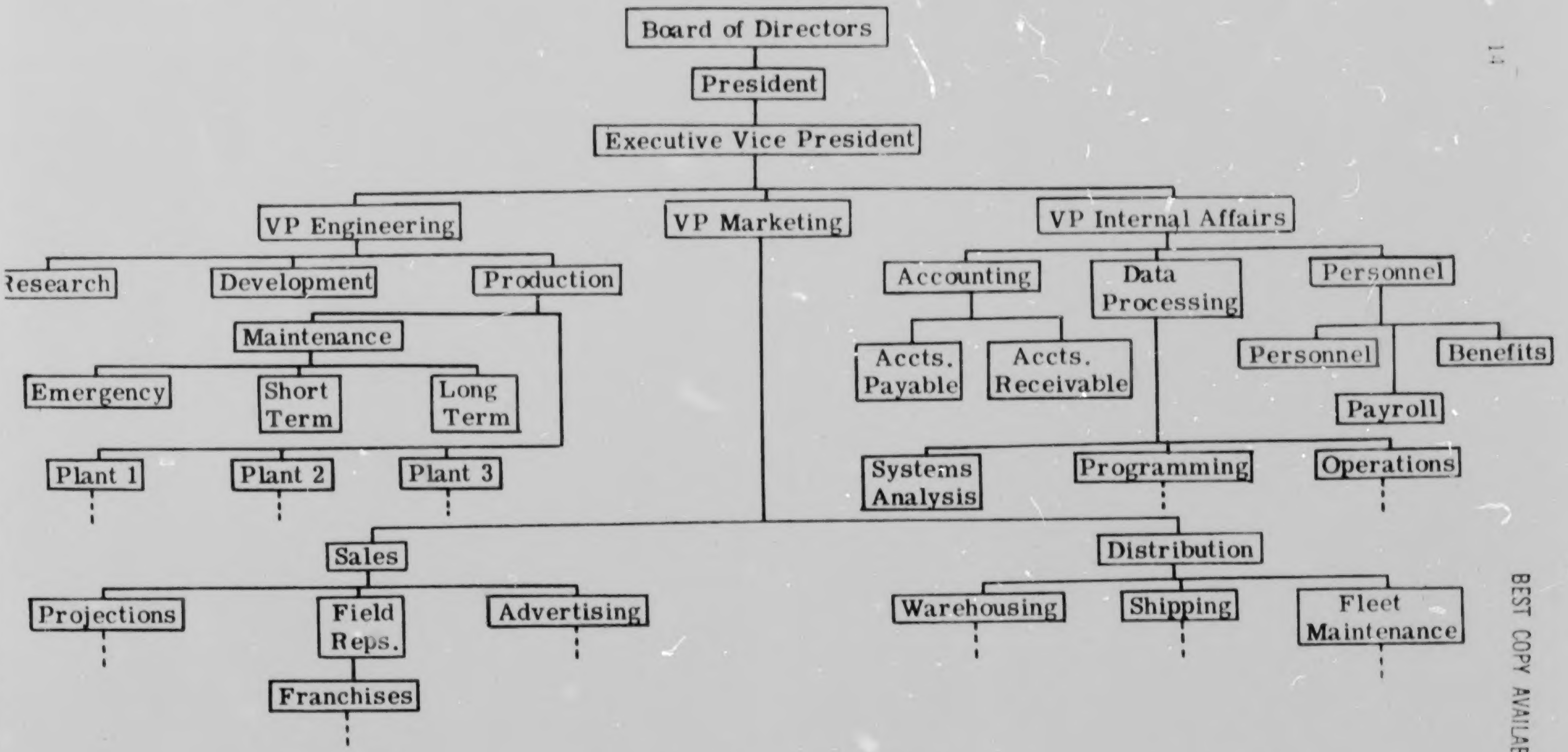
Board of Directors
President
Executive Vice President
VP Engineering
VP Marketing
VP Internal Affairs
Research
Development
Production
Accounting
Data Processing
Personnel
Maintenance
Accts. Payable
Accts. Receivable
Personnel
Benefits
Payroll
Emergency
Short Term
Long Term
Plant 1
Plant 2
Plant 3
Systems Analysis
Programming
Operations
Sales
Distribution
Projections
Field Reps.
Advertising
Franchises
Warehousing
Shipping
Fleet Maintenance

Figure 1. Organization Chart

departments and people and normally puts them in a hierarchical relationship.

Organization charts similar to these are also common in school districts where the charts show relationships between the Board, superintendent, assistant superintendents, PTA, principals, etc.

Although they are purported to, they do not always accurately portray the decision making process within an organization. They imply an upward flow of information and a downward flow of decisions. That is, any level of the organization supplies information to the level above it and makes decisions affecting the level below it. Decision making is rarely as simple as this, however. So, although organization charts have their uses, they are not always useful as decision making models, primarily because they do not allow us to make predictions about how decisions are made and who will be involved in making them.

Shared decision making represents one attempt to move away from this rigid type of organization and toward greater involvement in the decision making process of those who will be directly responsible for implementing the decisions and those who are most affected by the decisions. For this reason we will be talking about decision making models that focus more on the roles that people play and the processes people use in reaching decisions.

Before discussing critical factors that should be considered in designing a shared decision making model, it would be best to work the exercise that follows in Part III.

PART III - GROUP EXERCISE

You should be in a group of 4 to 6 members. Taking about 30 minutes for the task, use group discussion to arrive at a consensus on the supplies ranking (see Part I exercise). That is, as a group, rate the 15 items. You may refer to your own previous ratings at any time. One member of the group should record the final group consensus on the following page. When the ranking is completed, then complete the exercise by following the instructions on page 19.

Remember, the idea is to create a single ranking of all the items for the group within the half hour period.

LOST ON THE MOON

Group Worksheet

(To be completed by one member for the group)

Supplies:

______ Box of matches

______ Food concentrate

______ Fifty feet of nylon rope

______ Parachute silk

______ Solar-powered portable heating unit

______ Two .45-caliber pistols

______ One case dehydrated milk

______ Two 100-pound tanks of oxygen

______ Stellar map (of the moon's constellation)

______ Self-inflating life raft

______ Magnetic compass

______ Five gallons of water

______ Signal flares

______ First-aid kit containing injection needles

______ Solar-powered FM receiver-transmitter

When you have completed this ranking exercise, turn to page 19.

You should now discuss, for about 15 to 20 minutes, the types of decision making procedures you used. Here are some suggestions to guide your conversation (you need not limit discussion solely to these suggestions):

To what extent were group decisons reached in a rational way? (You might also discuss how rational individual decisions were.)

To what extent were group decisions bureaucratic?

To what extent were group decisions political in nature?

If someone in the group had been an astronaut (!), a pilot, or someone with special expertise (if, for example, someone had played the Moon Game previously) to what extent did this person influence the group decisions?

What techniques did you use to resolve conflicts and arrive at a consensus? (Coin flips, majority votes, etc.)

When you have completed this part of the exercise you should continue with Part III on the next page.

RANKINGS SCORE

This third part of the exercise is designed to demonstrate that, in general, group decisions in this game are better than individual decisions.

Use the form on the following page. Take your individual rankings from page 2 and enter them. Then write down the difference between your ranking and that suggested by NASA under "Error Points." (Ignore plus and minus signs.) When you have done this for all 15 items, add up the total number of error points.

Then repeat this process for the group rankings.

In almost all cases the total error points for the group ranking will be less than that for each of the individuals in the group. Exceptions to this principle are fairly rare.

NASA suggests the following over-all rating for individual error points.

0 - 25	Excellent
26 - 32	Good
33 - 45	Average
46 - 55	Fair
56 - 70	Poor
71 - 112	Very Poor

There is no rating chart for group decisions error points. You should now read Part IV of this discussion guide.

LOST ON THE MOON
NASA Rating of Supplies
(To be completed by all group members)

Supply		NASA's Ranks	Your Rank	Error Points	Group Ranks	Error Points
Box of matches	No oxygen on moon to sustain flame; virtually worthless	15				
Food concentrate	Efficient means of supplying energy requirements	4				
Fifty feet of nylon rope	Useful in scaling cliffs, tying injured together	6				
Parachute silk	Protection from sun's rays	8				
Solar-powered portable heating unit	Not needed unless on dark side	13				
Two .45 caliber pistols	Possible means of self-propulsion	11				
One case of dehydrated Pet milk	Bulkier duplication of food concentrate	12				
Two 100-pound tanks of oxygen	Most pressing survival need	1				
Stellar map (of the moon's constellation	Primary means of navigation	3				
Self-inflating life raft	CO^2 bottle in military raft may be used for propulsion	9				
Magnetic compass	Magnetic field on moon is not polarized; worthless for navigation	14				
Five gallons of water	Replacement for tremendous liquid loss on lighted side	2				
Signal flares	Distress signal when mother ship is sighted	10				
First-aid kit containing injection needles	Needles for vitamins, medicines, etc., will fit special aperture in NASA space suits	7				
Solar-powered FM receiver-transmitter	For communication with mother ship, but FM requires line-of-sight transmission and short ranges	5				
		Totals		____		____

Error points are the absolute difference between your ranks and NASA's (disregard plus or minus signs)

PART IV DECISION MAKING MODELS

Introduction

We have discussed different types of decision making and indicated that these will have some influence on the shared decision making model adopted in any particular school. That model should allow us to make accurate predictions about who will be involved in any particular decision and what the process will be. In designing that model, however, several other important factors must be considered: the purpose of the model, the membership in the process, the operating procedures, how decisions will be implemented and how evaluations of both individual decisions and the model itself will be made. Each of these factors will be discussed in turn. We should point out that there are no final answers to be found here, rather we suggest several factors to be taken into consideration when shared decision making models are being formulated.

Purpose of the Decision Making Model

Before considering how a particular model should operate we must clear as to its purpose. Are decisions made within the model binding on others? Or is it primarily a model for making recommendations for action to some other party? Is the model to solve one particular type of problem or is it to solve problems of many types on an on-going basis?

The first of these considerations is most critical. Although shared decision making is part of a move to more effective participation by teachers, students, parents, etc. in the affairs of a school, one individual, the principal, is usually held responsible, both legally and traditionally, for the operation of that school. This applies especially to the district administration, the school, board, and the community. Since it is difficult to hold entire groups responsible for the conduct of a school, the legal situation is not likely to change substantially, with the possible exception of collective negotiations legislation emerging. Hence the question remains -- are decisions binding or are they subject to veto by a higher authority?

If the output of a shared decision making group is advisory in nature, this will likely affect many features of the model, especially participation. Many people will not be willing to give time to making recommendations which may then be accepted or rejected. Veto power is an example of the difference between the power to make decisions and the power to implement them noted earlier.

One way to reduce the likelihood of a veto is to involve the person holding that power in the decision making process. This strategy allows that person to argue persuasively against any decision that might result in his veto. In fact, his most powerful argument would probably be a statement to the effect that, "If you decide X, I'll have to veto it." There is no one answer to how this veto power problem can be solved, for the character and personality of the veto holder will largely determine what happens in a particular setting.

It is also important to look at the size and scope of decisions to be made within the model. Will the model solve a wide range of problems and make decisions in a number of areas, or will it be limited to a particular type of decision?

Membership

The people who have parts to play in the model are as important as the model itself. In fact, they may be more important, since the best model for shared decision making in the world cannot operate successfully without effective people. Here we will consider three variables concerned with membership in the model.

First of all, who decides who shall participate in the decision making process? Are members appointed, elected or do they volunteer? Given the same model, each of these methods of staffing might result in different people serving. Each method has advantages and disadvantages, some of which are summarized on the following page.

Figure 2. Membership Variables

Selection Method	Some Advantages	Some Disadvantages
Appointed Participants	a. Reduction in conflict as all might tend to have similar views as "leader"	a. Possible reduction in alternative views that will be presented
	b. Tendency for decisions to be made rapidly	b. Tendency for appointments to be patronage for previous favors or support
	c. Composition can be more rationally determined in advance, i.e., a fair representation of differing views and constituencies can be planned and implemented.	c. Possible exclusion of "good" people because they are a threat to competence of "leader"
		d. Appointees tend to be accountable to leader rather than those for whom they are making decisions
Elective Participants	a. Everyone has a voice in selection of decision makers	a. Good people often avoid the "publicity" involved in the elective process
	b. Decision makers tend to be accountable to electorate	b. The most competent are not necessarily elected
Volunteer Participants	a. Normally only those who can spare necessary time will volunteer	a. Volunteers are not accountable to anyone for their actions
	b. Those with strongest interest, expertise, motivation might serve especially if invited, but not feel obligated to assume unwanted responsibility	b. Volunteers are frequently motivated by a desire to curry favor rather than a genuine desire to serve
		c. Volunteers often have a limited and possibly fluctuating commitment which reduces effectiveness and responsibility of the groups.

This is by no means an exhaustive list of advantages and disadvantages -- the reader is invited to add to this list.

A critical problem in deciding on membership is to ensure that people with both time and expertise serve. It is as useless to have experts with no time as it is to have non-experts with plenty of time.

Secondly, within a decision making model there will normally be positions of chairperson and secretary. Someone has to assume responsibility for calling meetings, passing on decisions, keeping notes, drafting statements, setting the agenda, etc. These tasks are important, and thust the positions of secretary and chairperson are crucial. The chairperson tends to control process while the secretary facilitates "group memory." The people filling these roles clearly need the trust and support of the other participants. When there is strong conflict between two or more factions, it may be advisable to have these positions filled by "neutrals".

Thirdly, should the membership be relatively permanent or should it vary considerably, depending primarily on the type of decisions being made? This question is, of course, closely related to the questions about the purpose of the model. It is quite feasible, as we shall see later, to have a model that allows for changing membership with changing decision areas.

Having considered the purpose and membership for a model, we should next turn our attention to the procedures used to reach decisions.

Operating Procedures

It is important to establish procedures for bringing matters needing decisions to the attention of the decision making structure. A closely related problem is that of timing -- can structure make a decision within the time constraints set by the problem? And, who makes that determination?

These are knotty problems; however, they must be satisfactorily resolved or the shared decision making process may be subverted, either intentionally or unintentionally.

To illustrate this point, let us suppose that a decision is required by tomorrow but the appropriate committee cannot meet until the day-after-tomorrow. It is then likely that someone else will make the decision instead of the committee. This kind of situation will inevitably arise from time to time quite naturally. However, we must be aware that a time limit can become a ploy used by those who are opposed to any shared decision making model. Groups should guard against such subversion of its purpose and work.

Another operational consideration is the method by which a specific decision is adopted as "the decision." Is it to be through unanimous agreement, a majority vote or an information "feeling of consensus." The method chosen will likely vary according to the importance of the decision and the people involved.

Finally, will there be parliamentary rules governing the conduct of shared decision making sessions or will they be "free-for-all" unstructured sessions? There is nothing inherently right or wrong about either format and individual or group preferences may largely decide this matter.

In general, however, operating procedures should be as simple and as clear as possible. Nothing is more damaging to the spirit of shared decision making than constant haggles over procedure which interrupt the important business at hand.

Implementation

Once decisions have been made that are binding upon some individuals or groups, who is responsible for ensuring that they are implemented? This is particularly important consideration for groups empowered to make district-wide decisions. Some form of reporting back to the decision making group is important to monitor this most important dimension.

Implementation of decisions may be the most difficult problem to overcome, particularly for decisions that are not very simple. Inevitably, many of those responsible for the implementation will not have been involved in the decision making process which took place on behalf of a whole district. In such instances, in addition to deliberate non-implementation, multiple interpretations of the implications of a decision further complicate matters.

Evaluation

Finally, we must have mechanisms for evaluating individual decisions, group decisions, and the decision making process. Feedback should be encouraged in each of these discussions. However, an absence of negative feedback should not be mistakenly accepted as evidence that everything is well. An on-going effort is necessary to actively seek out impressions of these decision elements. It is important that a critical eye be kept on the process by those who are involved in it, for general acceptance that it is "the best" method will inevitably lead to a general decline in its efficacy. Typically, more effective models for decision making remain in a state of constant change -- and this dynamic process continually responds to changes in the real world.

These factors are summarized in Figure 3 on the following page.

Figure 3. Key Factors to be Considered in Designing a Shared Decision Making Model

Purpose

Final authority or advisory only?
Permanent or temporary?

Membership

Appointed, elected or voluntary?
Selection of chairperson and secretary?
Permanent or temporary composition of group?

Operating Procedures

How are matters brought to attention of decision makers?
How are problems of timing resolved?
Agreement by consensus, majority vote, etc?
What rules will govern meetings?

Implementation

Who is responsible?
How is it done?
Monitoring Feedback?

Evaluation

Of individual decisions, group decisions, and the the decision making process?

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How is it done?
Monitoring Feedback?

Evaluation

Of individual decisions, group decisions, and the the decision making process?

PART V - ANALYSIS OF THREE MODELS

Introduction

In this part of the discussion guide we will examine three decision making models and discuss each of them using the five general factors described in Part IV. These models represent two extremes and a middle ground. We will look in turn at a school council type of model, a model in which the principal is the major decision maker, and one in which a small, permanent decision making group creates other committees as needed to help with its work.

Model I - School Council

We call this the School Council Model to suggest that it might include teachers, parents, students and administrators who hold "town meetings" to reach decisions.

What is the purpose of such a school council? It is intended to be a permanent decision making body which deals with all aspects of school afaairs. In as many areas as possible it will make binding decisions, but there will inevitably be some matters in which it is only advisory. Just what these matters are will depend to a large extent on the principal.

Membership, at least theoretically, includes all members of the school community, although in elementary schools probably not the pupils. The meetings would be open to all, and membership in the decision making process would be permanent for all. Participation, however, will depend largely on the topic under discussion at any given time. This can make the selection of a chairperson and secretary something of a problem, as each major group in the community is likely to want one of its members in those positions. Elaborate procedures for selection of leadership positions within the group will probably be devised.

In fact, all the operating procedures have a tendency to become more complex. In order to have a reasonable arrangement for bringing matters to the attention of the council and for resolving problems of timing, a "governing body" (or the chairperson) of some kind is likely to be established. This committee will be responsible for calling meetings, maintaining records and deciding which matters shall be brought before the full council. And here lies a problem -- decisions that have to be made in a hurry will tend to be made by this committee (or individuals) and not by the full council.

At full council meetings, parliamentary procedures will probably be required if a semblance of order is to be maintained. While such procedures are useful, the often have the effect of dissuading people from taking part because they don't understand all the "hassles" involved in making motions, wording resolutions or even catching the chairperson's eye.

Finally, the larger the number participating, the less likely will be consensus or unanimity and the more decisions will be based upon majority votes. This then opens the door for the formation of coalitions between groups and the creation of "in" and "out" groups.

An additional problem with this arrangement for shared decision making is that interest in all but very specific issues wanes quickly. Attendance is likely to decline rapidly after initial enthusiasm and then sporadically increase when "hot" issues are being debated. Thus, most decisions will tend to be made by the coordinating committee together with a few stalwart community members.

Implementation and evaluation will probably become the responsibility of the coordinating committee also, since it would be impractical for each community member to check on the implementation of a specific decision in which he was interested.

An alternative to most of the power going to one coordinating committee (or person) would be a proliferation of committees dealing with specific issues. While this increases the number of people actively involved in decision making, it also tends to increase inter-group communication problems. Often the whole structure then becomes fragmented with frequent jurisdictional disputes between committees arising.

In considering this type of decision making model for a given situation, one must balance the advantages of allowing for participation by a maximum number of community members against the disadvantages that may arise through fragmentation of effort or through domination by a single power group (or coalition).

Model II - The Principal as "King"

But surely this isn't shared decision making? Although "principal as king" usually does preclude shared decision making, it need not do so. It allows shared decision making only if the principal is committed to it, which is true to a degree of any model.

The model is that the principal invite individuals to either form committees or to help him personally in the decision process. Thus, this is largely an "ad-hoc" decision making model. As the disadvantages of the model are readily apparent, here we will discuss only the advantages, and implicit in the discussion is the idea that the principal is "a person of good will" who really wants shared decision making to work.

The model is permanent as long as the principal remains. While decisions may be either binding or advisory in nature, there is likely to be little doubt as to which it is to be in a particular circumstance -- the principal will make a point to tell those with whom he consults.

Membership is permanent for the principal, temporary for everyone else, with all others being appointed to help solve a particular problem. The principal will probably serve as chairperson and use his own secretary as secretary to the group.

There are no problems involved in bringing matters to the attention of decision makers -- they all go to the principal. The principal is then in a position to resolve timing problems. Meetings will require few formal rules and agreement will usually be by consensus.

The principal or someone designated by the principal will be responsible for implementation and evaluation.

Thus, if we assume that the principal really believes in shared decision making and is sensitive to the needs of various groups within his school, this model can be highly effective and efficient.

Model III - The Central Committee

This model lies somewhere between Models I and II. Here we have a small committee composed of representatives of all factions in the school. It is responsible for handling all shared decision making by either making decisions itself or by creating temporary sub-committees to work on specific decisions.

The central committee would be permanent and, depending on the circumstances, make either binding or advisory decisions.

While one would expect to find the principal as a member, all others would probably be elected to represent their various groups and would serve for specified periods. The chairperson and secretary would be chosen by central committee members themselves.

Operating procedures would largely depend on the size of the central committee. In general one would expect matters requiring decisions to be brought to the attention of the chairperson, who could then help to resolve timing problems. Agreement might be through consensus of some type of majority vote, again depending upon size.

Subcommittees could be formed as needed and chaired by a member of the central committee to further facilitate communications. Such subcommittees would be temporary in nature, but would be held responsible for the implementation of decisions and for their subsequent evaluation.

A subcommittee could also be formed from time to time to specifically evaluate the work of the central committee. Only the interval between evaluations, not the style of evaluation would be prescribed.

This model shares advantages and disadvantages with each of the others. Its major advantage is that it tends to reduce some of the excesses of the others -- it is neither unwieldy nor easily dominated by one person. On the other hand, it is likely, in time, to be vulnerable to domination by a small group of like-minded individuals.

The Importance of Feedback and Review

An important finding of the Marin County Shared Decision Making Study is that decision models should contain definite and specified review procedures. This means that all decisions, after they have been implemented, should be reviewed at some pre-established time by some designated person or persons. Although the specifics of such review vary, the authors believe that the review element is a critical link in successful decision making models.

A Final Word

Clearly, there is no one model of shared decision making that will fit all situations or that will fit one situation for all time. People change as do circumstances. The most beautifully conceived model will only work where the participants want it to succeed. The most awkward appearing model can be made to function if the participants want it to.

In designing a shared decision making model for any particular situation, one must be very careful to find out who supports it, who is against it, who doesn't care, etc. Otherwise the effort is likely to result in disappointing results. But, if the important questions can be answered and those answers taken into account, then shared decision making may bring significant positive changes to a school, its staff, its community and, most importantly, to its students.

APPROPRIATENESS

OF

DECISION MAKING

A Participants' Training Guide

Project Director
Rodger E. Cryer

Primary Consultants:
James L. Olivero, Ed.D.
Hollis H. Moore, Ph.D.
Wendy Portnuff

Virgil S. Hollis
Superintendent
Marin County Schools

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EDITOR'S PREFACE

This training guide has been set up for your use during the workshop. It is intended to serve as a workbook--one which you can keep and refer to after completion of the experience. The leader will ask you to do specific things with each part of the booklet.

Because the parts are sequenced to occur in a special order, it is best if you wait for instructions from the leader before proceeding with the workshop activities and with this training guide.

Comments and suggestions regarding the usefulness, appropriateness, relevancy, etc. of this training package should be directed to the address listed below.

Dr. Raymond G. Melton, Director
National Cluster Coordination Center
2418 Hatton Street
Sarasota, Florida 33577

PART I

RATIONALE AND PURPOSE

Much has been written about shared decision making (see the Bibliography on Shared Decision Making). As one reviews the literature, two potential problematic factors become clear:

1. Not everyone desires to be involved in shared decision making, and
2. Few people have sufficient information to adequately make decisions on all topics.

The underlying assumption for this training module is consistent with the notion that those involved in shared decision making can make wiser decisons, assume greater responsibility for decisions, and exhibit more commitment to decisions when the decisions concern topics of highest priority for individuals in the decision making group, and, decisions are materially improved where sufficient information is readily available to the decision making group.

These assumptions are supported both by considerable research and by empirical evidence available from school personnel engaged in shared decision making activities. (The interested reader is encouraged to review pertinent literature available through the ERIC system, and summarized in our Bibliography which highlights those references which might serve as excellent introductory materials.)

If results are to accrue from shared decision making, those included in the decision making and those represented by the decision makers need to know "who is deciding and about what are they deciding?"

PART II

OBJECTIVES FOR THE PACKAGE

There are three major objectives in this package:

1. Given the need for this training module as determined by the diagnostic test in Part IV of this training module, participants will become familiar with general empirical findings from the literature as well as from our analysis of schools currently engaged in shared decision making.

Evidence of the accomplishment of this objective will be demonstrated by 80% of those persons in the training program answering a post-test with 90% proficiency.

2. Given the need for this training module as determined by a majority vote of members in the decision making group, and follwing the sequence of events outlined in Objective #1 above, participants will complete a simulated training exercise in which areas of appropriateness for decision making are determined and ideas are given a priority ordering by the decision making group.

Evidence of the accomplishment of this objective will be the preparation of a list of "prioritized"* concerns and an indication of who should be making decisions about the concerns. (The listings will be based on a simulated school situation as provided for in this training module.)

3. Given the successful completion of Objectives #1 and #2, participants in the training group will participate in similar activities outlined in objective #2 above and will prioritize and determine appropriateness of decision making responsibilities relevant to their local school setting.

Evidence of accomplishment of this objective will be the prioritized listing of decision making areas and an indication of those responsible for making decisions within the area.

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* prioritize is a term coined recently. It is intended to mean, to arrange items in a priority ranked order, i. e., from the most important first--to least important last.

While there is certainly more than one way to determine appropriateness of decision making, this module provides a sequence of simulations for determining answers to the question of "who makes decisions about what?" The training is designed for members of a school decision making group.

This module may not apply equally well to other organizational decision making group settings. At the outset, the authors recommend that the diagnostic test at the beginning of Part be utilized. If a majority of those in the decision making group have difficulty in responding correctly to more than two or three items, the authors recommend proceeding with this training as a reasonable means for improving staff understanding of "appropropriateness" issues in shared decision making.

PART III

DIAGNOSTIC TEST

PARTICIPANT'S NOTES

On the following test, if two or more items are not consistent with the responses suggested, it is recommended that you complete the balance of this training module.

The leader will give you more specific information about scoring your responses and the test procedures.

DIAGNOSTIC TEST

1. Which of the following represents the least problematic area for shared decision making groups?

   A. Determining appropriateness of decision making responsibility

   B. Making decisions

   C. Accepting responsibility for decisions after they have been made

   D. Evaluating the effectiveness and efficiency of decision making models

2. What is the approximate range of time those involved in implementing shared decision making feel they have invested in discussion of "trivial" items?

   A. 10-20%

   B. 30-40%

   C. 40-50%

   D. 40-70%

3. How many schools have at least one planned training program for determining the appropriateness of decision making responsibilities?

   A. All

   B. Half

   C. One-fourth

   D. Very few, if any

4. Which of the following is not a technique for making decisions?

   A. Force-Field Analysis

   B. Delphi Techniques

   C. Interpersonal Communication Techniques

   D. Brainstorming Techniques

5. Which of the following statements is incorrect as far as the "empirical data" study is concerned?

   A. Shared decision making is much more effective than other decision making approaches.

B. People who are involved in decision making generally accept more responsibility for the decisions than when they are not involved.

C. Few people have participated in a variety of training programs which were designed to help them to make decisions.

D. Some people in the schools do not care to participate in shared decision making activities.

6. What of the following are problems which have been expressed by those practitioners engaged in shared decision making?

A. Determining the appropriateness of decision making responsibility

B. Accepting the accountability and responsibility for decision making

C. Determining the personality characteristics of those in decision making roles, e. g., compatibility and willingness to decentralize decision making power.

D. Agreeing on a decision making model

E. All of the above

7. While several different groups logically have vested interests in alternative models of shared decision making, which of the following groups are most often represented?

A. Administration and staff

B. Administration, staff and students

C. Administration, staff, students and parents

D. Administration, staff, students, parents and classified staff

True or False: (circle one)

8. Many schools involved in shared decision making find their decision making models to be workable; the major problems seem to come from getting people to follow through on procedures they agreed to at an earlier date. T F

9. Some participants in schools where shared decision making is encouraged believe decisions have been made previously by the administration and they are being manipulated to have the decisions appear as though they were not pre-determined. T F

10. Participants in schools where shared decision making is encouraged are aware of many problems with the processes and procedures but generally agree that shared decision making is a better approach to making decisions and is worth the extra effort. T F

ANSWERS TO DIAGNOSTIC TEST

1. B
2. D
3. D
4. C
5. A
6. E.
7. A
8. True
9. True
10. True

PART IV

FOR SELECTED PARTICIPANTS

Instructions: The Arbitrator's Role

Initially, inform the other members that they will be working through procedures which are designed to help determine areas of interest in which people may wish to be included in a decision making process.

Then, tell the members that there are three sequences of activities which will help them in arriving at "appropriate" decision making categories. These activities include:

1. Generating a list of decision making areas or categories that might be typical of most schools.
2. Generating specific lists of decision making categories that might be of special interest to people in schools where people have different recognized and accepted roles, e. g., administrators, department chairmen, first year teachers, etc.
3. Then combine these lists and establish one single list which indicates whether each person has strong, average, or little interest in each of the areas indentified.

Following these steps, using newspring paper and a felt-tip marking pen*, the arbitrator should solicit ideas from the group about categories of decision making that one could expect in a typical school setting. The arbitrator should note these on the paper. When the list is completed, the list might be expected to include some of the following categories:

- Budget questions
- Criteria for hiring

---

* or butcher paper, transparencies, blackboard, etc.

- Criteria for dismissal
- Teacher evaluation
- Utilization of space
- Class size
- Number of staff members per student
- Criteria for honor roll
- Curriculum content, instructional policies, etc.

These categories should be broad and general. The arbitrator should allow approximately 10 minutes to generate the list. In the next 30 minutes, using the resulting categories as an outline, the three-man teams should break up into small groups to brainstorm specific concerns under each of the headings--with each person assuming the role previously agreed upon. For example, under the heading "Criteria for Hiring", the administrators, department chairmen and first year teachers might be expected to have very different interests or perspectives. The arbitrator should point out that a major criterion for adding a decision making topic to the list is whether or not two or more members of the triad can agree that the topic is a legitimate decision-concern pertinent to their assumed role.

After approximately 30 minutes for this discussion, the arbitrator should reconvene the large group to discuss the ideas generated by the groups. The arbitrator should make use of the large newsprint paper and marking pen to list all the ideas under the original headings. It is likely that from six to fifteen decision-concerns may be identified for each of the major categories. When the lists are complete, a short coffee break or pause is often a good idea, suggested 15 minutes maximum. Then the arbitrator should have enough 3 x 5 cards so each of the nine members in this group will have one index card for each of the ideas listed. Also, during the break, it is suggested that the arbitrator go through the list and number each of the entries. The numbering proves useful when participants are later asked to consider each of the ideas listed and to form value judgments from their assumed role perspective.

When the participants return from the coffee break, each should be instructed to look at the list on the newsprint pad and to mark each of the index cards in such a way as to remind them of an idea that was numbered on the newsprint pad. It is not necessary to have participants re-write word-for-word all of the statements onto their cards--this process would probably take more time than could be justified for this procedure.

After completing the above step, ask each participant to look at the ideas listed on the newsprint pad and to sort the cards which represent the ideas into three piles according to three levesl of interest: (1) strong, (2) medium, (3) little. This task should be completed by the participants in about 10 minutes. The next task is for the participants to "order" the ideas in each pile in priority order (so the card of highest interest is first in the pile and the lowest is last). The cards should then be marked in order so that the first card in each pile is #1, second is #2, and so on.

When the cards have thus been placed in priority order (or "prioritized"), each arbitrator should work with his group to establish a rank order by group for the topics by determing "total" scores for each topic in the list. The topic with the least cumulative total is the topic of highest priority (similar to a golf score where the lowest score wins).

After each group has established the total for each topic and thus the items priorities, all the groups should return to meet with the workshop leader. The arbitrator should make available to the leader the "prioritized" topics.

PART V

POST-TEST
(Circle appropriate answer)

1. Different people have different areas of interest for shared decision making. T F

2. A systematic plan for establishing priorities is helpful. T F

3. Staffs working on shared decision making will always be dependent on an outside consultant for answers. T F

4. Shared decision making is always an efficient method. T F

5. Educators in general know what the research literature has to say about shared decision making. T F

6. Staff morale is generally improved when shared decision making is implemented. T F

7. Brainstorming can be a useful technique for staff members engaged in shared decision making. T F

8. In general the principal should always be the leader of a shared decision making group. T F

9. Shared decision making can be effective and efficient usually without training on the part of most teachers. T F

10. Staffs have the "right" to share in decision making on any topics they so determine. T F

POST-TEST ANSWERS*

1. True
2. True
3. False
4. False
5. False
6. True
7. True
8. False
9. False
10. False

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* Further clarification of these points can be achieved by reviewing these and other modules in the Shared Decision Making Series as well as the literature referred to in the bibliography.

APPROPRIATENESS
OF
DECISION MAKING

A Leader's Guide for Staff Training

Project Director
Rodger E. Cryer

Primary Consultants:
James L. Olivero, Ed.D.
Hollis H. Moore, Ph.D.
Wendy Portnuff

Virgil S. Hollis
Superintendent
Marin County Schools

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EDITOR'S PREFACE

These training materials are arranged in such a way as to help the reader to establish and/or operate a shared decision making group in an educational setting. Of the other titles in the series of Shared Decision Making Training Manuals, the package entitled "Decision Making Models" may be important to review in order to further understand the "Appropriateness of Decision Making" material.

"Decision Making Models" is available from:

Dr. Raymond G. Melton, Director
National Cluster Coordination Center
2418 Hatton Street
Sarasota, Florida 33577

Comments and suggestions regarding the usefulness, appropriateness, relevancy, etc. of this training package should be directed to the above address.

PART I

STRATEGY FOR CONDUCTING THE WORKSHOP

The basic strategy for using the contents of this module is contained within the context of the document. At this early stage of developing conceptual consideration of "appropriateness" issues, this module intentionally constitutes guidelines for instruction. Objectives are, as yet, fairly global, offering general suggestions for participants while providing the necessary freedom for individual facilitators to incorporate their own teaching styles.

The developers of this training package need and will appreciate feedback and suggestions concerning each part of the training outline. This is especially true of instructional suggestions. Modification of the package to accommodate your personal style of delivery might well be noted, recorded and sent to the training package developers for consideration.* Such ideas and suggestions will be carefully considered in preparation of future drafts of the training materials.

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* Dr. Raymond G. Melton, Director, National Cluster Coordination Center, 2418 Hatton Street, Sarasota, Florida 33577

PART II

INTRODUCTION

Prior to undertaking the training in this module, the workshop leader should thoroughly review the entire module and prepare the materials which will be used throughout the sessions. (See Appendix A for a listing of materials that should be prepared for use.)

In addition to the materials listed, other recommendations for the conduct of the training sessions are made. These include:

1. The leader should "think through" each training session prior to undertaking the training with participants.
2. The leader should preferably be an individual who is not a regular member of the group being trained.
3. The training sessions for Objectives #1 and #2 (see Part IV of the training materials) should preferably be held at a time when the participants can get away from telephones and other interruptions for at least a seven-hour period of time. Some training sessions have been highly successful when they can be initiated one evening and carried out through noon on the following day. This arrangement allows for time to reflect and think about the ideas generated throughout the working sessions.

On the next page, Part II will suggest the order in which events for the workshop might best take place.

PART III

The leader will need to design the specific agenda for the workshop to make it compatible with the needs of the group. A suggested agenda, however, is offered, though local situations will undoubtedly require local modifications. The suggested agenda is as follows:

SUGGESTED AGENDA
(approximately six hours)

Large Group	Introduce Workshop and State Objectives	30 Minutes
Large Group	Explain and hand out diagnostic test to participants	15 Minutes
Independent Study	Individuals complete diagnostic test, self-correct, review Appendix B for greater explanation	20 Minutes
Break for Coffee, etc.		15-30 Minutes
Small Group Discussion	Break up into small groups of preferably five people or less to discuss the answers and other information available relevant to "appropriateness" in shared decision making	30 Minutes
Large Group	Loosening up exercises for members in the group	20 Minutes
Large Group	Explain simulated activity and establish work groups	15 Minutes
Small Group	Break up into small groups with preferably no fewer than 10 people and work out simulated activities	60 Minutes
Break for Coffee, etc.		15 Minutes
Large Group	Leader calls for feedback from the small groups, and then summarizes the consensus of findings from the small group sessions	30 Minutes
Large Group	Leader explains techniques for "prioritizing" as a technique to improve decision making	10 Minutes
Break for Coffee, etc.		15 Minutes
Independent Study	Participants mark their lists of interests by indicating their levels of concern - high, medium, low	10 Minutes
Small Group	Individual participants merge their lists with others to form a single Matrix (see example in Appendix C)	20 Minutes
Large Group	A master list of interests is established by merging small group lists. Leader summarizes and then participants complete and score post-test.	30 Minutes

In suggesting this agenda, it is clear that local options and individual groups can be expected to take more or less time with some items, need to repeat specific experiences, and or delete activities, etc. Strict adherence to this agenda, therefore, is not advised based upon field training experiences of the authors.

The leader should set up an agenda which meets local needs after a first read-through of these materials. After such an agenda is designed, the leader should become thoroughly familiar with the elements and their sequence. Participants may be informed about the agenda early in the workshop (perhaps after an introduction, a review of the objectives and appropriate discussion, the agenda could be distributed to each participant).

The leader may now proceed to the package objectives, as listed in Part IV on the next page.

PART IV

OBJECTIVES FOR THE PACKAGE

There are three major objectives in this package:

1. Given the need for this training module, as determined by the diagnostic test in Part of this training module, participants will become familiar with general empirical findings from the literature as well as from our analysis of schools currently engaged in shared decision making.

Evidence of the accomplishment of this objective will be demonstrated by 80% of those persons in the training program answering a post-test with 90% proficiency.

2. Given the need for this training module as determined by a majority vote of members in the decision making group, and following the sequence of events outlined in Objective #1 above, participants will complete a simulated training exercise in which areas of appropriateness for decision making are determined and ideas are given a priority ordering by the decision making group.

Evidence of the accomplishment of this objective will be the preparation of a test of "prioritized"* concerns and an indication of who should be making decisions about the concerns. (The listings will be based on a simulated school situation as provided for in this training module.)

3. Given the successful completion of Objectives #1 and #2, participants in the training group will participate in similar activities outlined in Objective #2 above and will prioritize and determine appropriateness of decision making responsibilities relevant to their local school setting.

---

* prioritize is a term coined recently. It is intended to mean to arrange items in a priority ranked order, i.e., from most important first--to least important last.

Evidence of accomplishment of this objective will be the prioritized listing of decision making areas and an indication of those responsible for making decisions within the area.

Please note that one of the first activities to be undertaken by workshop participants is the diagnostic test. It is very important that the leader become familiar with the test (beginning on the next page - Part V), the correct responses, the procedures suggested and the additional responses to the diagnostic test answers (Appendix B).

PART V

DIAGNOSTIC TEST

LEADERS INSTRUCTIONS

Before proceeding with the test the authors suggest that the following questions be considered by members participating in this training session. If two or more of the items are not consistent with the responses suggested, it is recommended that the participants complete the balance of the training module.

The two procedures for taking the diagnostic test are:

A. The pre-test should be administered to all participants and each person should respond to each question. When they have completed their responses, they should self-score their answers with the answer sheet provided. In the time available, they should then review the explanations in Appendix B, especially for those items where their responses did not match suggested answers.

B. Leader should try to review each of the questions with the participants, permitting and encouraging the participants to talk openly about their answers. The responses in the answer sheet were compiled from empirical data from schools attempting shared decision making (see the document entitled: "Shared Decision Making--A Report on Eleven Western Cluster EPDA Field Models," in Appendix C) as well as from the authors interpretation of the decision making literature.

After the people in the group have had sufficient opportunity to discuss their responses and after they have debated the "correct responses," the leader should encourage participants to again read and consider the supporting information as contained in Appendix B. This will further clarify questions and answers which are particularly problematic and controversial.

DIAGNOSTIC TEST LEADER'S COPY

1. Which of the following represents the least problematic area for shared decision making groups?

   A. Determining appropriateness of decision making responsibility

   B. Making decisions

   C. Accepting responsibility for decisions after they have been made

   D. Evaluating the effectiveness and efficiency of decision making models

2. What is the approximate range of time those involved in implementing shared decision making feel they have invested in discussion of "trivial" items?

   A. 10-20%

   B. 30-40%

   C. 40-50%

   D. 40-70%

3. How many schools have at least one planned training program for determining the appropriateness of decision making responsibilities?

   A. All

   B. Half

   C. One-fourth

   D. Very few, if any

4. Which of the following is not a technique for making decisions?

   A. Force-Field Analysis

   B. Delphi Techniques

   C. Interpersonal Communication Techniques

   D. Brainstorming Techniques

5. Which of the following statements is incorrect as far as the "empirical data" study is concerned?

   A. Shared decision making is much more effective than other decision making approaches.

B. People who are involved in decision making generally accept more responsibility for the decisions than when they are not involved.

C. Few people have participated in a variety of training programs which were designed to help them to make decisions.

D. Some people in the schools do not care to participate in shared decision making activities.

6. What of the following are problems which have been expressed by those practitioners engaged in shared decision making?

A. Determining the appropriateness of decision making responsibility

B. Accepting the accountability and responsibility for decision making

C. Determining the personality characteristics of those in decision making roles, e. g., compatibility and willingness to decentralize decision making power.

D. Agreeing on a decision making model

E. All of the above

7. While several different groups logically have vested interests in alternative models of shared decision making, which of the following groups are most often represented?

A. Administration and staff

B. Administration, staff and students

C. Administration, staff, students and parents

D. Administration, staff, students, parents and classified staff

True or False: (circle one

8. Many schools involved in shared decision making find their decision making models to be workable; the major problems seem to come from getting people to follow through on procedures they agreed to at an earlier date. T F

9. Some participants in schools where shared decision making is encouraged believe decisions have been made previously by the administration and they are being manipulated to have the decisions appear as though they were not pre-determined. T F

10. Participants in schools where shared decision making is encouraged are aware of many problems with the processes and procedures but generally agree that shared decision making is a better approach to making decisions and is worth the extra effort. T F

ANSWERS TO DIAGNOSTIC TEST

1. B
2. D
3. D
4. C
5. A
6. E.
7. A
8. True
9. True
10. True

Leaders Summary

To this point in the training package participants should have:

1. Familiarized themselves with some of the current information available on shared decision making.
2. Completed, discussed, and analyzed the diagnostic test items and responses in Appendix B.
3. Determined whether the group wished to continue with the next phases of this training module.

Thus, at least theoretically, greater understanding of shared decision making and its implications should be occurring; in addition, some positive improvement in iterpersonal relations may be noticed as a function of the interaction opportunities which have occurred.

Proceed to Parts VI and VII, when the group has had sufficient opportunity to discuss the material thus far.

PART VI

LOOSENING UP EXERCISE

Leaders Introduction to Parts VI and VII

For this exercise to be beneficial to the group, interpersonal communications must be free and open. Participants for the first part of this activity will be asekd to "role-play." The primary purpose of this exercise is to "loosen up" the group members so that they can more easily assume their respective roles. Much of the discussion and analysis of shared decision making up to this point has been on a rather impersonal level; however, the next part of the training is designed to lead to more direct, frank interchanges between participants in a group in an attempt to establish the "appropriateness" of decisions for the different individuals in the group. The exercise involves a team effort and considerable non-verbal communications, in fact, the learning activity utilizes role playing and acting out thoughts and emotions as a vehicle for insight and learning.

Instructions

The leader should divide the participants into equal groups; preferably the groups should be no larger than ten members each. Assuming there are a total of 30 participants, three rather than two groups should be formed. Each group should choose a different specific working site in the general workshop vicinity. The locale should be preferably such that groups cannot overhear or observe other groups.

When in separate locations, the leader should then give each of the groups an assignment. The assignments are intended to be fun-type experiences allowing for considerable laughter and enjoyment on the part of the participants. The members of each team will need to determine how they should best approach their tasks. For example, if one of the assignments were to demonstrate how a crane might be used to get a 5,000 pound elephant out of the mud, the members of the group would have to determine such things as: who might play the elephant? the crane? should a truck be used to haul away mud as the feet of the elephant are freed? etc.

The group should work out the details of their specific roles. One can easily imagine the contortions some of the team members might get into in order to demonstrate the action of the team in an identifiable manner. Team members are not permitted to talk aloud, as in charades, though they can make certain other noises, e. g., crash-sounds, banging-sounds, machine-like noises, etc.

In the event that there are several groups, the assignments for teams might include:

1. Demonstrate how a 5,000 pound elephant might be removed from the mud by a large crane.
2. Demonstrate how a 2,000 pound blob of jello could be put into a 10 cubic foot box.
3. Demonstrate how a go-go girl might act if put in a water tank that suddenly froze into a block of ice.

With more than three groups, the leader should try to invent similar situations requring diverse roles for the team members to assume, as required by the task assigned.

The leader should give the team members enough time to plan what they will do. The leader should then re-convene the groups in the original large group location. Each group should then carry out its own assignment, while the other groups observe and try to guess the actions of the demonstrating group. Many observers take five minutes or more to come up with the correct answer. It is important to establish the rule that those putting on the demonstration can not talk although they can focus strong attention on individual members of the observer groups who are "on the right track."

When each group has taken its turn and their assignments have been identified, the leader should then spend a few minutes reviewing with the participants a few of the communication possibilities which could be illustrated through role-playing. For example, the leader should point out that almost every job, including making decisions, requires team effort. It might also be suggested that different members of the team have different functions, but collectively each are important and necessary. It is the case that much communication, for better or worse, takes place even when no sentences are spoken. Non-verbal communications are a reality, and must be recognized and utilized as relevant feedback in group processes.

A short discussion about role-playing is in order, particularly in underscoring the point that not only can people gain from role-playing experiences, but that they often gain a greater respect for the role of others by the process of acting out another person's role.

The leader is advised to place the participants in the same groups as in the preceding role-playing experience. One person in each of the groups should be identified as "the arbitrator", three other members of the group should represent "administrators", another three should represent "department chairmen", the remaining members should represent "first year teachers". Modification may be made if there are fewer or more than 10 members in a team.

The workshop leader will need to prepare special directions for the "arbitrator" role since this role serves to direct the three three-man teams through the exercises. (See Appendix D)

The following directions for "the arbitrator" should be presented in printed form so they can be studied. An opportunity to discuss suggestions and/or to ask questions of the leader regarding any points where uncertainty exists should be provided. During the exercises, the leader should move between the groups observing and trouble-shooting where necessary. The leader needs to exert necessary self-restraint in order to avoid taking over any of the groups.

PART VII

THE LEADER'S ROLE

The workshop leader, when the large group is reconvened, should illustrate some important principles by calling attention to specific information. Feedback from the group should suggest the following:

1. Not all people agree on the topics of greatest importance; this is even true of people who share similar role expectations, e. g., administrators, aepartment chairmen, first year teachers.
2. People are more able to "prioritize" topics of greatest concern when they have a systematic approach to the task.
3. The processes used in a simulated situation can also be used in a real-life situation with only minor modifications.
4. The research literature suggests that people are more likely to support decisions which they have helped to determine and when those decisions are of particular interest to them.
5. Some people prefer being "told what to do" because it better fits their life styles. Thus, the responsibility for making a series of "heavy" (or important) decisions may constitute a heavy burden.

Finally, some legal and practical constraints need to be considered when "appropriateness" of decision making areas is discussed. For example, there are certain decisions that must realistically be made by specialists in the school system. Identifying some of these specialists might be a useful topic of discussion for the participants. The concepts of jurisdiction, expertise and legal accountability might enter the discussion at this point. Some examples include: the responsibilities of the Board of Education as stated in the State Education Code, the responsibilities of the Superintendent as usually contained in a district administrative policy handbook, etc.

Before terminating the session, determine from the participants whether a commitment to follow-up the training can be made. Agreement by participants to further use the skills of identifying "prioritizing" and ranking decisions relative to individual roles and interests are important steps toward planned systematic and more rational shared decision making.

Such a determination, from an earlier workshop, is illustrated in Appendix E. As can be seen from this example, various issues were listed and individuals having an interest in the issues were listed appropriately.

PART VIII

POST-TEST

As suggested in the agenda, the last workshop item is administration and self-scoring of the workshop Post-Test. The leader should become familiar with the test and suggested responses before administering the test. The test and responses should be duplicated and distributed to each participant. The leader should turn to the next page.

POST-TEST

(Circle appropriate answer)

1. Different people have different areas of interest for shared decision making. T F
2. A systematic plan for establishing priorities is helpful. T F
3. Staffs working on shared decision making will always be dependent on an outside consultant for answers. T F
4. Shared decision making is always an efficient method. T F
5. Educators in general know what the research literature has to say about shared decision making. T F
6. Staff morale is generally improved when shared decision making is implemented. T F
7. Brainstorming can be a useful technique for staff members engaged in shared decision making. T F
8. In general the principal should always be the leader of a shared decision making group. T F
9. Shared decision making can be effective and efficient usually without training on the part of most teachers. T F
10. Staffs have the "right" to share in decision making on any topics they so determine. T F

POST-TEST ANSWERS*

1. True
2. True
3. False
4. False
5. False
6. True
7. True
8. False
9. False
10. False

---

* Further clarification of these points can be achieved by reviewing these and other modules in the Shared Decision Making Series as well as the literature referred to in the bibliography.

APPENDIX A

MATERIALS NEEDED

1. A separate copy of the training manual for the workshop leader.
2. Copies of the Diagnostic Test with answer sheet for self-scoring for each participant.
3. Copies of Appendix B for each participant.
4. Papers, pencils, chalk, felt pens, audio-visual equipment, etc. necessary for the participants.
5. Butcher paper sufficient for each of the small groups to write on during discussion sessions.
6. Copies of the Post-Test, with answer sheet for self-scoring.

APPENDIX B

ADDITIONAL RESPONSES TO THE DIAGNOSTIC TEST ANSWERS

Additional Responses to the Diagnostic Test Answers

1. Which of the following represents the least problematic area for shared decision making groups?

   While each of the alternatives indicated in the multiple choice selections for this question has some basis in fact, apparently the least troublesome problem faced by those involved in shared decision making has to do with the specific act of "making decisions." Considerable attention has been given to this matter and a number of programs are currently available specifically to help individuals to make decisions. Unfortunately, little has been done to help those involved in shared decision making to determine appropriate areas for decision making or to help people subsequently assume responsibility after the decisions have been made. Also, little has been done to help evaluate the effectiveness and efficiency of shared decision making models. Specific training programs for these latter three topics are not (to the authors' knowledge) currently in existence and it is only recently that serious attention has been given these matters. Indeed, even available literature on organizational studies from industry, public administration, management, etc. is sparse relative to these three latter topics mentioned. The authors strongly believe that such training appropriately designed, is urgently needed.

2. What is the approximate range of time those involved in implementing shared decision making feel they have invested in disucssion of "trivial" items?

   There seems to be a very wide range of time spent on trivial items, according to actual questionnaire data received from several schools engaged in implementing shared decision making. In the sample collected in this study, the amount ranged from 40-70 percent. This range needs to be considered from several perspectives. First, is it related to the person responding to the issue, e. e., would others in the same group estimate the same general range of time expended on trivial items? Second, is it related to the role of the individuals making such estimates, i. e., does a principal tend to see more or less time spent on trivia than department chairmen, students, or parents? The literature is too incomplete at this time to determine, with great accuracy, the needed amounts of time needed to "maintain the group" (which may be termed trivial by some!), needed to "train the group", needed to "consider the issues", needed to "release emotional tensions", needed to reveal "hidden agendas,", etc.

3. How many schools have at least one planned training program for determining the appropriateness of decision making responsibilities?

   Apparently none of the schools involved in the Western Cluster arrangement have specific programs available to determine the appropriateness of decision making responsibilities. Some of the schools have delineated various categorical areas toward responsibility. Responsibilities have generally been determined by a felt need on the part of the people rather than through specific training and diagnostic activities designed to delineate the various areas of responsibility.

4. Which of the following is not a technique for making decisions?

Force-field analysis, the Delphi technique, and "brainstorming" are all techniques designed to assist people in making decisions. The force-field analysis approach has been developed by the National Training Laboratory. The Delphi technique was first established by social scientists attempting to "guesstimate" future situations, and has been used by school administrators in trying to arrive at consensus about the future prospects for issues in public education. The Delphi technique is especially useful when large volumes of data are available and priorities must be established for all the data. "Brainstorming" is a problem-solving strategy which is especially useful when open-ended, creative possibilities for problem solving and decision making are sought. Brainstorming approaches are designed to generate a large number of new possibilities for problem solving even though some or even most may be impractical.

5. Which of the following statements is incorrect as far as the "empirical data" study is concerned?

From the available evidence, shared decision making is not necessarily much more effective than other decision making approaches. Currently, those involved in shared decision making suggest that much of a group's time is spent discussing non-substantive issues. That is, too much often, time is spent on less significant but simpler matters because it is easier to make decisions in these areas.

6. What of the following are problems which have been expressed by those practitioners engaged in shared decision making?

All of the statements identified are problems of one degree or another, for those involved in shared decision making. From the research data of this study, accepting accountability and responsibility for decision making is a very significant problem area. It also appears that determining the appropriateness for decision making is another area deserving serious attention in schools attempting shared decision making. A more recent problem area which has emerged involves the personality characteristics of those involved in decision making roles. The characteristics of the principal in a school seem especially critical. For example, it is obvious that some principals can live with greater flexibility than others and this characteristic is possibly associated with an ability to delegate authority and responsibility which is bound to have a profound effect upon decision making styles in a school.

7. While several different groups logically have vested interests in alternative models of shared decision making, which of the following groups are most often represented?

At the present time, administrators and paid staff typically represents those currently taking part in shared decision making activities in schools. Some schools have begun to include students and classified or paraprofessional staff personnel, while others have begun to include parents and volunteer aides. Most schools have been inclined to gain considerable group decision making experience before expanding the makeup of their decision making groups to be more representative.

8. Many schools involved in shared decision making find their decision making models to be workable; the major problems seem to come from getting people to follow through on procedures they agreed to at an earlier date. True

It does seem that most of the schools sampled in this study indicated that they have found their shared decision making models to be fairly workable. The difficulty with most models seems more related to human factors where those who had previously agreed upon processes and procedures have not met their responsibilities to follow through on such commitments.

9. Some participants in schools where shared decision making is encouraged believe decisions have been made previously by the administration and they are being manipulated to have the decisions appear as though they were not pre-determined. True.

There is evidence that some participants believe they are being manipulated in the decision making process. This complaint seems positively correlated to a lack of trust with school administrators and to the number of substantive issues actually considered by the group for major decisions.

10. Participants in schools where shared decision making is encouraged are aware of many problems with the processes and procedures but generally agree that shared decision making is a better approach to making decisions and is worth the extra effort. True.

It is true that most practitioner responses analyzed indicateiin this study an awareness of problems associated with shared decision making; however, there was unanimous agreement among respondents that shared decision making should be continued, expanded, and refined. Even though there are problems and frustrations associated with implementing greater sharing of decision making, there was strong consensus that the efforts were worth while and that it would be undesirable to go back to a more traditional, principal centered autocratic decision making style.

APPENDIX C

REPORT ON ELEVEN EPDA WESTERN CLUSTER PROJECTS

REPORT ON THE SHARED DECISION-MAKING

QUESTIONNAIRE: Western Cluster EPDA* School Personnel Utilization Projects

INTRODUCTION:

Keeping in mind that an eleven page questionnaire can elicit a variety of responses when the questions are of an "open-ended" type, the following summary is not intended to substitute for an in-depth analysis of the entire questionnaire. It is intended to provide, however, some broadly brushed at-a-glance material which synthesizes and summarizes the primary results of the questionnaire study. Essentially, twenty-five (25) items were selected for analysis from the original thirty-nine (39) items in the total questionnaire. The twenty-five items selected were chosen on the basis of project expediency, overall project significance and local relevance for future planning purposes. All the responses and the attached materials submitted were carefully studied for their significance to additional research and evaluation documents.

In general, the approach used for presentation of the study involves the analytic combination of responses and response categories. Because these techniques are sometimes unique to individual question format, occasionally notes describing the techniques for combining responses are included. The important point from this summary is that there are a variety of approaches being tried in implementing shared decision making, and that there is no recognized "right answer" or right approach."

---

* Education Professions Development Act Projects funded through the School Personnel Utilization Program in the U. S. Office of Education.

QUESTIONS AND RESPONSES:

What major changes have been made in your school's approach to shared decision making?

One set of responses addressed themselves to changes relating to the composition of the decision -making group (senate, council, etc.). Others indicated administrative changes or procedural changes which would be implemented given the opportunity to make this kind of revision. Responses in the former category included: add subject area coordinators, add vice-principal representative, add at-large and student representatives, and, add more "non-administrators". Responses in the latter category included: use of a "quality control device", allow policy decision changes by a simple majority vote, permit senate responsibility for developing program goals, and giving senate a greater role in district-wide decisions.

Who is involved in the decision-making group? Who is represented?

Five projects reported that all staff were involved in the decision-making process. Six projects indicated that "selected members" were involved and several projects indicated the titles of those involved (i. e., Principal, vice-principal, classified personnel, teachers, etc.).

Is it a decision-making group or is it an advisory group? Does the Principal have veto power? Should there be veto power?

Decision-making = eleven (11)

Advisory - two (2)   some overlap here

Seven (7) indicated that the principal had veto power, four (4) said the Principal did not have the power. Four (4) indicated that there should be such power while two (2) indicated such power should not exist.

How are decisions arrived at? Are votes taken? What type of majority vote is needed to pass items? If you operate by consensus, how does your group define consensus?

Nine (9) projects reported that they used some form of formal or informal voting procedure while eight (8) said that they required consensus, most commonly defined as agreement by all individuals present. Majority figures varied from one more than half or simple majority (1/2 + 1) to 3/4 majority to 80% majority.

How was the group composition determined? How were the members selected? (i. e., appointed, elected, volunteered, etc.) How frequently is membership changed?

Group composition was determined in the following manner:

Technique	Number of Projects
Appointed	3
Elected	6
Screening committee selection	2
Volunteer	2
	11*

* Some overlap due to multiple techniques in two of the projects

Changeover is generally built-in to the model used by each project. The responses varied from one year terms for all members to overlapping terms on one or more years.

Is there a regular time when the group meets to consider issues? When? How frequently? Before-school, during-school, after-school?

Most met once a week (eight -8), one project held monthly meetings, one group met three times each month and one project had no regularly schedule meeting times or dates. Two (2) had during-school meeting times, three (3) had after-school meetings, two (2) held before-school meetings, and two (2) projects indicated no special time for meeting.

How is the agenda generated for your meetings? Is it in writing? Posted in advance? Are time limits set? Are priorities established? If so, how? Who is responsible for these functions?

All the projects indicated that they used an agenda of some kind for their meetings. The ways in which the agenda items are assembled varies with each project. Generally, items can be added to the agenda directly by individual committee members. No clear cut techniques for establishment of priorities were enunciated except where this was the responsibility of administrators or chairpersons.

Are written minutes taken? How are they distributed?

Ten (10) indicated that minutes were taken. Nine (9) said that the minutes were distributed either to the indivduals or to their school mailboxes. Three (3) projects said that they posted a copy of the minutes and one (1) said that the minutes were kept on file.

What changes might make sense if the decision-making group were to be reconstituted?

These responses included the following ideas:

- changes should be made to reflect specific needs within the project,
- changes should be made so that the operations become more "humanistic",
- representation should include more students and more parents and fewer administrators,
- the use of standing committees should be tried,
- there should be more or less representatives serving on the council (both ideas were mentioned)

How successfully do you believe those who are involved in decision-making have gathered the kind of background information they need in order to make decisions effectively and rationally?

The responses to this item were displayed on a continuum as follows:

	Excellent (No problems)	Highly Variable	Poorly Prepared
No. of r =	One (1)	Five (5)	Three (3)

Have any, or all, members of the group participated in any in-service activities to improve their skills in decision-making?

These responses were tallied under the following headings:

All	Any (some)	None
Five (5)	Five (5)	One (1)

What kind of activities did they undertake?

These responses were categorized and tabulated:

Communication (4) Evaluation (1) Leadership Training (4)

Problem Solving (2) Decision-Making (1) Group Process (2) None (2)

Do those who are involved feel that too much time is expended on making decisions?

These responses were placed along the following continuum:

	Too Much	Proper Amount	Too Little
Resp. =	Six (6)	Five (5) One (1)	One (1)

Please "guestimate" the amount of time expended on trivial matters? (Please use your own judgment in terms of criteria for "trivia".)

None - two responses
Very little -
10 - 15% -
15% -
20 - 25% -
33% -
Under 50% -
50% -
Over 50% -
70% -

All one response each

How does this time compare with the amount of time spent on determining important substantive issues that come up in school?

100% -
90% -
75 - 80% -
75% -
60% -
Over 50% -
Most
50% -
30% -

One response in each category

List at least four things that need to be improved about your current decision-making model?

A composite listing is being prepared of responses in this category.

How does the group communicate to others what decisons have been made?

Response categories and tabulations:

Minutes	Bulletins & Memos	Oral Reports & Discussion
Nine (9)	Four (4)	Ten (10)

Other

One (1)

APPENDIX D

Instructions: The Arbitrator's Role

Initially, inform the other members that they will be working through procedures which are designed to help determine areas of interest in which people may wish to be included in a decision making process.

Then, tell the members that there are three sequences of activities which will help them in arriving at "appropriate" decision making categories. These activities include:

1. Generating a list of decision making areas or categories that might be typical of most schools.
2. Generating specific lists of decision making categories that might be of special interest to people in schools where people have different recognized and accepted roles, e. g., administrators, department chairmen, first year teachers, etc.
3. Then combine these lists and establish one single list which indicates whether each person has strong, average, or little interest in each of the areas indentified.

Following these steps, using newspring paper and a felt-tip marking pen*, the arbitrator should solicit ideas from the group about categories of decision making that one could expect in a typical school setting. The arbitrator should note these on the paper. When the list is completed, the list might be expected to include some of the following categories:

- Budget questions
- Criteria for hiring

* or butcher paper, transparencies, blackboard, etc.

- Criteria for dismissal
- Teacher evaluation
- Utilization of space
- Class size
- Number of staff members per student
- Criteria for honor roll
- Curriculum content, instructional policies, etc.

These categories should be broad and general. The arbitrator should allow approximately 10 minutes to generate the list. In the next 30 minutes, using the resulting categories as an outline, the three-man teams should break up into small groups to brainstorm specific concerns under each of the headings--with each person assuming the role previously agreed upon. For example, under the heading "Criteria for Hiring", the administrators, department chairmen and first year teachers might be expected to have very different interests or perspectives. The arbitrator should point out that a major criterion for adding a decision making topic to the list is whether or not two or more members of the triad can agree that the topic is a legitimate decision-concern pertinent to their assumed role.

After approximately 30 minutes for this discussion, the arbitrator should reconvene the large group to discuss the ideas generated by the groups. The arbitrator should make use of the large newsprint paper and marking pen to list all the ideas under the original headings. It is likely that from six to fifteen decision-concerns may be identified for each of the major categories. When the lists are complete, a short coffee break or pause is often a good idea, suggested 15 minutes maximum. Then the arbitrator should have enough 3 x 5 cards so each of the nine members in this group will have one index card for each of the ideas listed. Also, during the break, it is suggested that the arbitrator go through the list and number each of the entries. The numbering proves useful when participants are later asked to consider each of the ideas listed and to form value judgments from their assumed role perspective.

When the participants return from the coffee break, each should be instructed to look at the list on the newsprint pad and to mark each of the index cards in such a way as to remind them of an idea that was numbered on the newsprint pad. It is not necessary to have participants re-write word-for-word all of the statements onto their cards--this process would probably take more time than could be justified for this procedure.

After completing the above step, ask each participant to look at the ideas listed on the newsprint pad and to sort the cards which represent the ideas into three piles according to three levesl of interest: (1) strong, (2) medium, (3) little. This task should be completed by the participants in about 10 minutes. The next task is for the participants to "order" the ideas in each pile in priority order (so the card of highest interest is first in the pile and the lowest is last). The cards should then be marked in order so that the first card in each pile is #1, second is #2, and so on.

When the cards have thus been placed in priority order (or "prioritized"), each arbitrator should work with his group to establish a rank order by group for the topics by determing "total" scores for each topic in the list. The topic with the least cumulative total is the topic of highest priority (similar to a golf score where the lowest score wins).

After each group has established the total for each topic and thus the items priorities, all the groups should return to meet with the workshop leader. The arbitrator should make available to the leader the "prioritized" topics.

APPENDIX E

SAMPLE OF SHARED DECISION MAKING INTEREST MATRIX

STAFF MEMBERS AND AREAS	STRONG
Peer Evaluation	13, 20, 17, 15, 4, 18, 14, ⑫* 2
Hiring Practices	⑱, 2, 16
Staff Representation to Board	⑳
New Student Orientation	17, 4, ㉑, 11
New Teacher Orientation	⑰, 16, 21
Publication & Product Quality Control	20, 19, 16, ⑪
Salary Procedures	20, ⑧, 1, 2, 16, 7
Staff Self-Renewal	15, 4, ⑭, 12, 11, 19
Dismissal Practices	2, ⑯
Elective Program	15, ①, 16, 11
Scheduling Criteria	⑳, 8, 1, 11
Student and Teacher Follow-up When Leaving School	18, 16, ⑳, 4, 13
Activity Journal	⑲
School Yearbook Publication	19, ⑮, 8
Recruitment	⑦, 18, 16

*The numbers circled (person for which the number corresponds) will convene the first session of the group meeting.

STAFF ORDER

1. Alberto
2. Anderson
3. Bannion
4. Dillehust
5. Doheny
6. Farthing
7. Finlayson
8. Fitzmaurice
9. Jonsson
10. Kaneko
11. Laycock
12. McElveny
13. Mason
14. Morine
15. Nyquist
16. Osmond
17. Sachs
18. Sallee
19. Stone
20. Sorrell
21. Warren

APPENDIX F

MASTER CHART ON SHARED DECISION MAKING

AREAS OF CONCERN

Resources Available	Practitioner's Questions A	Responses to Questions from Practitioners B	Organizational Development Materials and Programs C	Human Resources D
1 RATIONALE FOR SHARED DECISION MAKING PROS & CONS				
2 PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS & INSTITUTIONAL VALUES				
3 DECISION MAKING MODELS				
4 LOCATION OF AND APPROPRIATENESS OF DECISION MAKING RESPONSIBILITY (POWER)				
5 PROBLEM SOLVING & DECISION MAKING PROCESSES				
6 COMMUNICATION SYSTEMS				
7 ACCOUNTABILITY FOR DECISIONS				
8 ASSESSING DECISION MAKING EFFECTIVENESS & EFFICIENCY				

SHARED DECISION MAKING:

PROBLEM SOLVING AND DECISION MAKING PROCESSES

Mr. Rodger E. Cryer
Project Director

James L. Olivero, ED.D.
Consultant

Hollis M. Moore, PH.D.
Consultant

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PART I

INTRODUCTION: PROBLEM SOLVING AND DECISION MAKING PROCESSES

This training module is designed for members of shared decision making groups. In addition, some suggested exercises in this module encourage those in decision groups to work with others outside the group to help others become more knowledgeable about problem solving techniques and decision making procedures.

A review of empirical data from practitioners on shared decision making has helped to determine the need for this module. Unfortunately, although many people have identified the onerous difficulty of getting acceptance on a decision, efforts to locate training programs designed to help overcome this difficulty have been largely unsuccessful. For this reason, simulated exercises suggested here have been selected from various programs attempting to offer assistance to those who are concerned about group problem solving.

The leader should understand that there is much that remains unknown about preparing people to be decision makers; the authors are convinced, though, that a learning process is possible and that shared decision making can occur if people come to believe it is important. Because of the many "missing links" in problem solving techniques and processes, there will undoubtedly be times during the training session when situations arise where the leader will need to improvise and create appropriate responses. This may foster feelings of loneliness and add to the leader's frustrations. For this the authors apologize, but it must be recognized that all of the necessary resources and solutions to rescue the leader from such predicaments simply are not available. It should be useful for all users of the package to analyze the times when feelings of "uncertainty" occur and report ensuing struggles to recover from such situations. These reports could be useful for package developmental efforts in the future.

To complete this training module, the following ideas are recommended for the leader:

1. The leader should "think through" the training sessions as outlined in the materials prior to undertaking the training with participants;
2. The leader should preferably be an individual who is not a regular member of the group to be trained; and,
3. The training sessions for the Objectives (See Part IV of this training module) should preferably be held at a time when the participants can get away from telephones and other distractions for a sufficient period of time. (The authors suggested minimum is seven hours of training. Some training sessions work best when they can be initiated one evening and carried out through noon of the second day. This arrangement allows for time to think and to begin to internalize the ideas generated throughout the working sessions.)

Participant Handout
(or some modified form)

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

PART II

SUGGESTED AGENDA

A List of Materials Needed to Conduct this Workshop is Contained in Appendix A.

Steps	Group Size	Activity	Time Allowance
I	Large Group	Participants introduce themselves and leader outlines objectives for the workshop.	30 minutes
II	Small Group	Leader divides participants into groups with preferably no more than 8 people in each group. Individuals in the small group complete the diagnostic test and discuss the responses.	40 minutes
III	Small Group	Individuals read additional information provided in Appendix B and discuss the data outlined there.	45 minutes
IV	Break	Coffee, etc.	20 minutes
V	Large Group	Leader explains format for "Budget" simulation game (Appendix D)	15 minutes
VI	Small Group	Participants read specific roles (groups of preferably no more than 8 people) and carry out assignments in Simulation Game.	75 minutes
VII	Large Group	Leader obtains information from the group on what was accomplished and he also provides feedback to the groups based on his observations of their instructions.	30 minutes
VIII	Break	Coffee, etc.	20 minutes
IX	Large Group	Leader outlines purpose behind Force Field Analysis and works through Problem Solving Procedure with the total group.	60 minutes
X	Small Group	Identify one problem area and "force field" it through to a solution.	45 minutes
XI	Large Group	Leader outlines "Brainstorming" procedures and guidelines. Participants give responses in "brainstorming" possible solutions to a problem.	30 minutes
XII	Small Group	Participants "brainstorm" actions for two top priority areas determined earlier--and establish priorities on actions. Then, each individual is to prepare a written plan for action to use when at home site.	20 minutes
[illegible]	Large Group	Leader summarizes workshop. Solicits information from small groups regarding at home tasks, and then administers post test.	[illegible] minutes

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PART III

LEADER'S INTRODUCTION

Considerable attention has been given to problem solving and decision making techniques. It must be recognized that many decisions are made each day by an individual. It seems apparent to the authors that some people appear to labor over even seemingly simple decisions whereas, by contrast, others are able to make difficult decisions quickly and effectively. This suggests major individual differences in capacities for analyzing and sorting out various factors for arriving at sensible conclusions based upon clear priorities.

The more complex an issue becomes (as a rule, the more people are affected by a decision, the greater the complexity of that decision), the more likely it is that systematic approaches need to be followed in arriving at decisions.

Without going into too great detail, there are at least three reasons why outlining specific decision making techniques is valuable:

1. The process helps to keep people "on course" and helps to reduce the tendency to side-track discussions or group efforts.

2. The participants in decision making groups, when following agreed upon procedures for making decisions, should be able to focus more effectively on relevant issues rather than personalities.

3. The participants are more likely to focus on "causal" elements rather than "effect" elements; thus, underlying problems in some order of priority of importance may be addressed systematically enabling members to structure their own efforts in order to maximize decision making effectiveness.

In reviewing the literature on decision making, one should recognize that several workable and practical approaches to problem solving already exist.

The National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) has used a "Delphi" process to examine future needs and to arrive at decisions concerning those projected needs. Other "systems approaches" have working models which can be adapted and adopted to good advantage. For example, the Association of California School Administrators have developed an important plan which is similar to other applied approaches while having some unique characteristics making their design particularly well suited to educators.

The approach here includes a number of tools from a variety of sources. The eclectic approach has been adopted in order to achieve three goals; (1) to keep people "on course"; (2) to provide a systematic procedure; and, (3) to focus energies on "causal" rather than "effect" elements in problem solving.

The first activity in this module is a simulated game having to do with the task of deciding where to add $10,000 to a school's budget (see Appendix D). Members in the workshop group are asked to role-play personalities within a hypothetical decision making group and from this experience it is anticipated that they will have an opportunity to observe complex decision making and see how difficult it is to arrive at decisions when individuals within a group hold specific, parochial concerns which do not necessarily address the needs of children. Differences in individual perspectives, values, biases, concerns, etc. are highlighted for emphasis, for dealing with such realities effectively is always challenging in group decision making.

A second technique selected for discussion is the now fairly well known "brainstorming" technique. This technique helps to get ideas out in the open--no matter how "far out" the ideas seem -- in order to facilitate identification of creative potential solutions to problems. The process is very simple, but is recognized as one of the most effective tools for eliminating personality problems plaguing many decision making groups. However, certain "ground-rules" must be followed by the whole group to make this technique work effectively. A more positive, supportive orientation to creative problem solving is usually engendered by the "brainstorming" technique.

A third technique highlighted in this module is called "force field analysis." The National Training Laboratory (NTL) was one of the first to use this approach which is designed to help people focus on problems and then provides a framework whereby members of a group can analyze specific problem resolutions in terms of both approaches for eliminating the constraints preventing the problem resolution and ways of contributing to solutions through positive initiative. It is obvious that proponents for the force field approach believe that almost *any* problem is resolvable *if people truly want to resolve the problem*. For this reason, the technique presumes that group members will actively seek ways to eliminate constraints.

Finally, this training module provides an opportunity for participants to determine how they can make best use of workshop skills in their own educational situations. Hopefully, participants will learn skills they will use not only while they are at the workshop, but that they can apply in their classroom, in their school and school district, and even within their personal lives to assist them in resolving a wide variety of problems more effectively.

The leader should now continue with the next section of the manual--beginning with the statement of performance objectives and the diagnostic test instrument. This training module has four specific objectives. The leader should make sufficient copies of the stated Objectives to provide one for each participant.

By sharing the objectives explicitly, the leader can better keep the workshop focused. The objectives should help the participants by providing advance information about the training and what is expected to be gained from it.

PART IV

PERFORMANCE OBJECTIVES

The four objectives for this training module are:

1. Given the need to acquaint group participants with information about decision making processes, participants will be familiar with and be able to use "force field analysis" and "brainstorming" techniques upon completion of this training module.

Evidence: Participants will demonstrate their skill by working through two force field exercises and two brainstorming exercises.

2. Given the need to establish specific knowledge of problem solving and decision making techniques, participants will demonstrate their knowledge on a test administered at the close of the workshop.

Evidence: To fulfill the requirements for this objective, participants will respond correctly to 6 out of 7 questions on the post test.

3. Given the need to distinguish between probable "causes" and "effects" as well as the need to identify significant causes, participants will demonstrate their ability to identify significant cause-effect relationships during a problem solving exercise.

Evidence: Participants will work through a simulated problem solving exercise using the force field analysis technique to determine causal factors and the priority of actions which are necessary to resolve the problem.

4. Given the need to help others become aware of problem solving techniques, participants will leave the workshop with specific plans for sharing newly acquired skills with other members of their school community.

Evidence: To meet this objective, plans, in written outline form, will be completed prior to the end of training. Each plan will indicate individual responsibilities for action, including statements about "who" is to do "what" by "when".

PART V

DIAGNOSTIC TEST - LEADERS INSTRUCTIONS

Before moving to this activity, the leader should explain that not all people need training in this area. However, it should be pointed out that the training may still be of significant value to those who already are familiar with some of the techniques planned and such persons may be able to assist others in the group. If the package were totally individualized, participants scoring high on the diagnostic test would be able to opt out of the training. However, due to the need for group involvement in the simulation exercise and other problem solving activities, the authors suggest that everyone, regardless of diagnostic scores, actively participate in the suggested workshop activities. However, the discretion of the leader should be exercised here. Seven out of eight correct answers could be considered a "passing" test score.

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DIAGNOSTIC TEST

Directions: Select the most appropriate answer and circle your choice. When the test is completed, you may score the test using the answer sheet provided.

1. Which of the following is not usually considered a problem solving technique?

    a. The Delphi Technique
    b. Random Selection
    c. Force Field Analysis
    d. Brainstorming

2. All the information on an issue must be considered before a decision is made. T F

3. Decision making techniques have been derived primarily from business, sciences, education, psychology, sociology and mathematics. T F

4. Often "personality" problems rather than "issue" problems hamper the decision making process. T F

5. The question of determining "how" a decision will be decided may often be as important as the decision itself. T F

6. Most schools using shared decision making have formalized systematic plans which they follow. T F

7. Relatively few teachers have had sufficient opportunity to learn about the complexity of many educational decisions. T F

8. Special training is usually needed to enable people to make effective decisions in groups. T F

Answer Sheet to

DIAGNOSTIC TEST QUESTIONS

1. B (Random Selection)
2. False
3. True
4. True
5. True
6. False
7. True
8. True

PART VI

AFTER THE DIAGNOSTIC TEST

LEADER INSTRUCTIONS

After the participants have had an opportunity to check their answers against our suggested "correct" responses, they should be directed to the question and answer information contained in Appendix B, so that they can review and be prepared to discuss these materials.

When this has been completed, participants may wish to take a break. After the break, the leader should proceed by having the participants re-assemble in the full group. At this time, the leader should outline work to be covered in the simulation exercise. The exercise materials for the simulation game entitled "The Budget" is contained in Appendix D. The leader should become thoroughly familiar with this game before explaining it to others for their use. Also, the leader should consider some of the constraints associated with the materials (i.e., assigning the participants to atypical roles, the fact that it is a hypothetical situation, etc.).

After an explanation of the simulation exercise, the participants should move into small groups of preferably eight people. They should then read and consider the roles they are to assume during this training experience. The authors anticipate that this exercise will require approximately an hour and fifteen minutes. Frequently, in this amount of time, either a group will come to some decisions or find itself hopelessly bogged down.

As the game progresses, the leader should move from group to group analyzing the processes and discussions so as to provide some feedback for participants when appropriate. To assist the leader in knowing what to observe, the leader's attention is directed to the questions in Appendix C entitled "Problem Areas in Shared Decision Making."

When the simulation exercise is concluded, the leader should re-convene the full group. At this time, the person representing Ed Kraftie, parent and chairperson of the Parent Council, should describe the events which took place during the simulation experience and try to relate some of the feelings of the people involved. If decisions were made, this person should indicate how the group reached its decisions.

The leader, using the set of problem questions in Appendix C, should report on the observations of the small groups. The leader should point out that the workshop is designed to help decision making groups learn more about needed processes and techniques and that the next step (following a short coffee break) will be to address these techniques. It is recommended that the leader adjourn the group for a short break prior to undertaking the next step.

At this time, the leader should have two specific objectives in mind:

1. To provide information to the group which will help them realize how important it is to have a procedure or system for dealing with problems.

2. To provide an opportunity for the group to complete a given problem using the force field analysis technique. (The leader will be expected to lead this activity so it is important that he or she understand the process.)

Why Have a System? Basically, there are three reasons for approaching decision making systematically, as follows:

1. Decision makers are more likely to discuss the real issues as opposed to the personality problems which may emerge;
2. A good decision making system will aid in the identification of "causal" problems rather than continuing to focus simply on "effects"; and,
3. A system will offer some thought about how to get at problems through selected solutions organized in priority fashion.

FORCE FIELD ANALYSIS EXPLANATION:

Of the problem solving approaches suggested, the leader will begin by explaining the "Force Field Analysis" techniques. First, the leader should draw a chart on the blackboard (or newsprint paper) which is similar to Diagram I.

At the top of the chart is a space for the participants to identify the problem they hope to solve. Any number of problems might be chosen from typical school operational problems.

Once the problem is identified, members of the group list under the "+" column all the reasons why the problem needs to be dealt with--and the participants should be given a few minutes to call them out while the leader records them. Next, the participants should mention all the difficulties they met in preventing the problem from occurring. These should be placed under the " - " column in the chart. Again, the leader should encourage and use recommendations emanating from the members of the group.

By looking at the "+" column, the members of the group can determine quickly--and without having personality clashes, some of the reasons why it seems sensible to do something about the problem. The next order of business is to consider items in the " - " column to see which of these items are "causes" and which are "effects." Participants should also determine which items need to be addressed before work on the others is possible. This activity will suggest alternative solution strategies. However, it is preferable to avoid discussing specific actions to be taken at this time.

Diagram 1

Problem Identification: ______________________________

+	-
Positive Forces	Negative or Restraining Forces

FORCE FIELD ANALYSIS - EXERCISE

Before moving on to the actual "action" steps, the leader should provide an opportunity to experiment with the force field analysis procedure. To do this, participants should break up into small groups--the authors suggest that small group arrangements other than those established for the simulation game be created for this exercise.

Each group should identify a problem that is of mutual concern. Areas such as peer evaluation, use and abuse of drugs, open campus issues, etc. are all fairly common problems suitable for this technique. The groups should proceed through the process.

When the groups conclude their work sessions, the person chairing the small group should be able to:

1. State the problem the group chose.
2. State the reasons ("+") they wanted to solve the problem.
3. State some of the constraints (" - ") which stand in the way of resolving the problem.
4. State the items in the constraint column)" - ") that are "causes" and those that are "effects."
5. State the priority ordering for alternative solution strategies, assuming something were to be done to correct the problem.

If these five steps can be met, the participants are ready to move on to the next activity. If the objectives cannot be met, the participants need to dialogue with the leader the difficulties they are having so that a procedure for arriving at successful completion of the above steps can be assured. Most groups, when open hostility between members is minimal, can come to workable agreements.

When the leader and the groups are ready to proceed, the next step is to assist the participants by demonstrating ways to take action on the alternatives they have chosen. This action would include three basic steps to insure closure and positive direction for the future action:

1. Determining what actions shall be taken and establishing guidelines for deciding who will be responsible for what action;
2. Determining the people responsible for which specific actions; and
3. Establishing a deadline or target date by which time a given action will be completed.

These three actions outline the implementation strategies for the group's decision. They have been listed because of their frequent omission in actual decision strategies to the detriment of responsible follow-through.

BRAINSTORMING EXPLANATION

One way to arrive at decisions for step #1 just mentioned is to have people "brainstorm" potential actions open to them. Brainstorming is a technique for generating ideas from a group. It entails approximately the following:

A. Tell the participants they will be learning a technique called "brainstorming," and that this is a quick way to solicit everyone's ideas. Make the important point that all ideas are acceptable. No idea in brainstorming is unacceptable; that is, do not pass judgment on any idea generated from the group during the "brainstorming" process. Following this guideline is essential for the process to work effectively.

B. Tell the participants that there is something called a "ding-a-ling" comment and that the leader reserves the right to ring a bell or clank a spoon on a glass if and when anyone offers a "ding-a-ling" comment. Generally, the comments referred to here are defeatist statements such as, "...you can't do that because ... ." When ideas are being generated, such defeatist statements (i.e., negative value judgements) can do more to "turn people off" than crazy ideas. The intervention of the leader, if necessary, will help people remain in a positive frame of mind avoiding the urge to repress imaginative and creative ideas.

C. To help participants learn about brainstorming, let them try the following exercise:

> The leader should tell the participants that their responsibility is to think through as rapidly as possible the uses which might be made of two train carloads of ping pong balls cut in half.

When the leader says "go," the group members, as quickly as possible, generate options. Generally, the group is surprised at the myriad of suggestions they create. The leader should make certain to emphasize the bell ringing if there are defeatist statements during this idea-generating period.

D. Once ideas have been stated, there should be some opportunity for discussion and clarification. Then, the participants should indicate, by a show of hands, those ideas of "high," "medium," and "low" interest and/or potential. Mark each idea with an "H," "M," and "L" respectively. Cross off all of the "M" and "L" ideas and focus attention only on those marked "H." At least theoretically, the group has indicated these items are the ones which deserves first attention.

By a show of hands, have the members determine which item they think is the one they need to do first, second, third, and so on. This will establish the group's suggested priority order for action.

The exercise tries to get many ideas out into the open, subsequently eliminating those which only seem to have medium or low interest and/or potential and elevating those with high interest to a position where priorities for action can be determined.

E. The leader then should illustrate how a person or group of persons may take responsibility for a decision if it is to be implemented. The leader can arbitrarily assign such responsibility or preferably the group can make such assignments. This procedure should be completed in a fairly short period of time, but is a very important step for responsible follow-up activities.

PRACTICING THE USE OF THESE TECHNIQUES - GAINING COMMITMENT

The leader should demonstrate practical uses of the techniques just outlined by having the participants work through the same processes with the alternatives they earlier identified in their small group activities.

When this has been completed, the participants may move back to small groups. The leader charges the small groups to "brainstorm" the action that must be taken on a school site to acquaint others (not in attendance at the workshop) with the processes and procedures of force field analysis, brainstorming, prioritizing, establishing personal responsibility and determining action deadlines. The chairpersons of the small groups should return to the Summary Session, with written plans of action.

After returning to the full group, the workshop leader should summarize the workshop and listen to the plans the group members have made in their small groups for follow-up action. Finally, the leader should give a copy of the post-test to the participants. The answers to the post test should be made available so participants can check their responses. After the responses have been checked and reported back, the workshop is concluded. Clarification of the post test or points raised during the workshop can take place on an individual basis for those individuals with concerns or further questions.

PART VII

POST TEST

Problem Solving, Techniques and Processes

Directions: Please circle the response which best represents your answer to the question or statement.

1. Trust among participants is important if effective shared decision making is to become a reality. True False

2. There is less hope that definite action will be taken if specific persons are not named as responsible and if a deadline date for that action is not determined. True False

3. When a systematic procedure for problem solving can be agreed upon, little need exists to continue working on interpersonal communication skills. True False

4. Brainstorming is a technique which helps those using the process carefully delimit the scope of their concerns in such a way that sharp focus can be given a problem. True False

5. The force field approach to problem solving assumes that almost any problem is resolvable if people truly wish to resolve problems. True False

6. Often determining what procedure will be accepted for resolving a question or a problem is as important as the actual decision. True False

7. A systematic approach to problem solving helps to keep decision makers on target--usually adding efficiency to the decision making process. True False

ANSWERS TO POST TEST

1. True
2. True
3. False
4. False
5. True
6. True
7. True

APPENDIX A

MATERIALS SUGGESTED FOR THE WORKSHOP

A. Leader Materials:

1. Manual for the Workshop Leader

2. Compete sets of "Budget Game". Reproduce materials for each small group (preferably no more than 8 people) in the workshop

B. Participant Materials: NOTE: The actual number of materials needed is dependent on the number of participants in the workshop.

1. Copies of the Workshop Objectives

2. Copies of the Suggested Workshop Agenda

3. Diagnostic Tests with Answers for self-correcting

4. Copies of Questions and Answers about Problem Solving and Decision Making Processes Available from Practitioners (see Appendix B)

5. Copies of the Post Test with Answers for self-correcting

C. Small Group Materials:

1. The necessary number of individual role descriptions for the budget simulation exercise (i.e., total number of participants divided by 8)

2. Extra Force Field Worksheets (2-3 for each participant)

Usual paper pads, pencils, newsprint paper, felt tip pens, and other workshop materials, i.e., coffee arrangements, name tags, etc.

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS OBTAINED FROM PRACTITIONERS IN THE FIELD ON THE TOPIC OF PROBLEM SOLVING AND DECISION MAKING PROCESSES AND PROCEDURES

1. How can one avoid watering down a solution to the point where it isn't meaningful?

When decision making groups first begin, there is a tendency to "water down" or make less powerful decisions for fear of causing ill feelings. As the group gains confidence, and, as they begin to attack more substantive issues, more meaningful decisions may be made. Time seems an important variable in the consideration of this problem.

2. How can problems be solved without having a "winner" and/or a "loser?"

Until the group gains confidence and trust in its individual members, the problem of a "winner" and/or a "loser" persists. This is frequently because the individuals consider the problems to be their own rather than matters for the attention of the whole school. The force field analysis approach is one technique which can be employed beneficially. Force field analysis helps to identify basic causes of problems, to separate causes from effects and to rank solutions in priority order.

3. How can the decision making group come to understand the mechanics of decision making?

Decision making groups "practice and learn" the appropriate mechanics which apply to their decision making model. This does require specific training and opportunities to simulate and thus test the procedures prior to implementation. Perhaps one of the major difficulties faced by some groups is the problem of getting into the actual decision situations prior to field testing the problem solving techniques.

4. How does the decision making group come to make decisions and then follow the decisions with implementation strategies?

The decision making group must consider implementation strategies while considering specific decisions. This may require a second consideration of a problem prior to making a final decision. Such second considerations should relate to the actual steps to be taken in carrying out a decision. This activity may be undertaken by an *ad hoc* committee vested with the purpose of designing implementation strategies. When appropriate implementation strategies have been defined, review by the total decision making group should occur prior to initiating the decision.

5. How does the decision making group move from the superficial to the real problems?

Decision making groups move from superficial to real problems when they have gained confidence and trust in each other, when they have learned requisite decision making skills, when they have an acceptable decision making process or model, and when they see their decisions as having importance. This may happen within a year or it may take as long as two or three years!

6. What are the different ways to generate solutions to problems?

There are at least three skills which we feel are useful to decision making groups in generating solutions to problems: (1) brainstorming techniques, (2) skill in Delphi problem solving techniques, and (3) skill in the force field analysis technique. Other techniques are under development which may prove to be equally helpful to future groups.

7. How does the decision making group learn listening skills--necessary for considering and reflecting on what others meant when they said something?

Most individuals within decision making groups must learn listening skills as such skills are apparently not inherent. Because this is the case, it may be wise to use outside consultants prepared to develop "listening" skills in others. Such training programs and consultants make up the list of human resources listed in the overview package of this Shared Decision Making series.

8. Feelings are important; how can they be taken into account when decisions are made?

Problem Solving and Decision Making Processes

Personal feelings are extremely important when decisions are being made. Our information at this time is minimal relative to ways in which individual feelings can be safeguarded when decisions are being generated. Special care should be the rule in all situations where human feelings and emotions are likely to become involved.

9. How do decision making groups learn about communication skills, forcefield analysis, Delphi techniques and other approaches to problem solving?

Decision making groups may learn about communication skills, force field analysis, Delphi techniques and other approaches to problem solving by contacting Dr. Raymond G. Melton, Director, National Cluster Coordination Center, 2418 Hatton Street, Sarasota, Florida 35577 for further information.

10. How does the decision making group avoid the potential contest to determine who is right rather than what is right for children?

See response to question number 2.

11. How do individual members develop objectivity skills and openness to change their opinions?

See response to question number 9 above.

APPENDIX C

PROBLEM AREAS IN SHARED DECISION MAKING

During the simulation game, "Budget," the leader may wish to use the check list below to help identify some of the problem areas the group may be having making decisions.

1. Do members of the group talk without thinking or respond to others without listening to what the others had to say?

2. Are interests of the members too parochial--to the point that the best interests of students are not served?

3 Is there a systematic procedure for problem solving followed?

4. Do individuals within the group get off on tangents that are counter-productive?

5. Is "trust" established?

6. Do members of the group come to realize that it is easier to "add on" ($10,000) than it is to "cut-back?"

7. Is agreement ever reached on how the decision (whatever it is) will be made?

8. Do members of the group use available information and data for coming to a decision?

9. Does the leader of the group keep the discussion centered?

10. Does the leader periodically synthesize those points where agreement is reached?

APPENDIX D

BUDGET SIMULATION EXERCISE

To the Leader

"The Budget" simulation exercise is played by preferably eight (8) participants. Each participant has a specific role to fulfill; these roles are spelled out on the pages which follow. The eight roles are as follows:

1. Parent and Chairman of the Council
2. Teacher and Representation of Teacher Council
3. Student and Student Body President
4. School Board Member
5. Principal
6. Parent and PTA President
7. Community Representative
8. Art Teacher

The leader should make certain that a complete set of the game materials is available for each group. (Should there be fewer than eight people, eliminate the art teacher's role and/or the board member's role.)

APPENDIX D

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"THE BUDGET"

A Simulation in Participatory Decision-Making

Situation: Senate Bill 90 has passed. The Buena Vista High School Advisory Council is meeting to advise on how new funds will be used in next year's program. The Council represents diverse interests. There is a principal, two teachers, two parents, a community representative, a student, and a school board member.

The time is the present. The third page shows a budget for this year. The budget is for the 9th grade only (not the whole school --for the purposes of simulation). This year's budget is $80,000 for the 9th grade. The committee's job is to recommend the addition of $10,000 to this budget for next year. You may cut existing program allocations if you wish, and you may add programs. You may change goal statements. However, you may not expend more than $90,000.

Other data: Total number of students of 9th grade: 100 (this year and next)

Per pupil costs: $800

If any other data is needed for your decisions, make assumptions.

The Chairman of your group is Mr. Kraftie, parent.
Your role is on the second page.

Your group has 45 minutes to solve its problem.
Good luck!

Members of the Council:
- Mr. Jim Mittle, Principal
- Mr. Bob Strong, Teacher and Representative of the Teacher Council
- Mrs. Ardy Turndon, Art Teacher
- Mr. Ed Kraftie, Parent and Chairman of the Council
- Mrs. Janie Black, Parent and PTA President
- Mr. Tom Hardy, Community Representative
- Ellie Kidd, Student and Student Body President
- Mr. John Leader, School Board Member

This exercise is adapted from: Robert C. Horn, "Participative Decision-Making: A Simulation," Information Resources, Inc., P. O. Box 493, Lexington, Mass. 02173. The source is not only recommended for the exercise, but also because it includes a most concise set of instructions (and bibliography) on how to "build" simulations.

ROLE DESCRIPTION

Mr. Jim Mittle, Principal

Below is your role description. Please study the interests of your role and try to represent your role as responsibly as possible. Use your best judgement and bring all of the good will you can to your role.

You would like to see the school have better community relations and community involvement. Some indicators are:

- decrease the incidence of pregnancy among students.
- decrease the amount of drug use.
- decrease the amount of vandalism in the neighborhood.
- increase the number of college bound.

The school did not meet its goals of 80% student advance this year. The actual figures were:

·Math	72%
·English	41%
·Social Studies	58%
·College Bound	65%

You are relatively open, wanting everyone to have his or her opinion incorporated into the final decision. However, you are convinced that your job depends upon making the 80% listed above for next year.

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BUDGET

The costs below include teacher salaries, books, equipment and supplies, and administrative overhead. Like many school budgets, teacher salary composes approximately 80% of sts. 180 school days.

NO.	SUBJECT AND GOAL	NO. OF STUD. HRS.	NO. OF TEACH. HRS.	COST THIS YEAR	COST NEXT YEAR
1	80% of the students in the class will advance one grade-level in reading skills and English language knowledge as measured by a standard test.	90,000	3,000	$15,000	
2a	80% of the students will advance one grade level in math (algebra) as measured by a standard test.	90,000	3,000	$20,000	
2b	95% of the students will "like" math as well at the end of the year as they did when they entered as measured by attitude questionnaires, homework done, etc.				
3	80% of the students will advance one grade level in biology as measured by a school developed test.	60,000	2,000	$14,000	
4	80% of the students will show the ability to examine social issues critically as indicated by a school developed test.	90,000	3,000	$14,000	
	All students will be provided with education on tobacco, alcohol, and narcotics. Effectiveness measured by sampling the tobacco and alcohol purchases at local stores and narcotics by several indicators, e.g. reported use, arrests, anonymous questionnaires, etc.	22,500	750	$ 4,000	
6	All students will be provided with a comprehensive family living course including sex education. Effectiveness will be estimated by the number of unwanted pregnancies reported among school-age girls, VD reports sampling of local medical community, etc.	22,500	750	$ 5,000	
7	All students will be provided with an exposure to art forms by two field trips to city art museums and an audio-visual course in art appreciation.	22,500	750	$ 1,500	
8	80% will rank above 50 percentile on President's physical fitness scale.	22,500	750	$ 6,500	
					$90,000

"THE BUDGET"

A Simulation in Participatory Decision-Making

Situation: Senate Bill 90 has passed. The Buena Vista High School Advisory Council is meeting to advise on how new funds will be used in next year's program. The Council represents diverse interests. There is a principal, two teachers, two parents, a community representative, a student, and a school board member.

The time is the present. The third page shows a budget for this year. The budget is for the 9th grade only (not the whole school --for the purposes of simulation). This year's budget is $80,000 for the 9th grade. The committee's job is to recommend the addition of $10,000 to this budget for next year. You may cut existing program allocations if you wish, and you may add programs. You may change goal statements. However, you may not expend more than $90,000.

Other data: Total number of students of 9th grade: 100 (this year and next)

Per pupil costs: $800

If any other data is needed for your decisions, make assumptions.

The Chairman of your group is Mr. Kraftie, parent.
Your role is on the second page.

Your group has 45 minutes to solve its problem.
Good luck!

Members of the Council:
- Mr. Jim Mittle, Principal
- Mr. Bob Strong, Teacher and Representative of the Teacher Council
- Mrs. Ardy Turndon, Art Teacher
- Mr. Ed Kraftie, Parent and Chairman of the Council
- Mrs. Janie Black, Parent and PTA President
- Mr. Tom Hardy, Community Representative
- Ellie Kidd, Student and Student Body President
- Mr. John Leader, School Board Member

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K.A. Tye/Jan. '73

ROLE #2

ROLE DESCRIPTION

Mr. Bob Strong, Teacher and Representative of the Teacher Council

Below is your role description. Please study the interests of your role and try to represent your role as responsibly as possible. Use your best judgement and bring all of the good will you can to your role.

You want smaller classes. Thirty students is too many.

Teachers want to have time off to take courses to improve their skills.

The facilities for the math and science teachers are so much better than those for others that conflict arises.

Above all, you represent the interests of the faculty!

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

BUDGET

he costs below include teacher salaries, books, equipment and supplies, and administra-
ive overhead. Like many school budgets, teacher salary composes approximately 80% of
sts. 180 school days.

O.	SUBJECT AND GOAL	NO. OF STUD. HRS.	NO. OF TEACH. HRS.	COST THIS YEAR	COST NEXT YEAR
	80% of the students in the class will advance one grade-level in reading skills and English language knowledge as measured by a standard test.	90,000	3,000	$15,000	
a	80% of the students will advance one grade level in math (algebra) as measured by a standard test.	90,000	3,000	$20,000	
b	95% of the students will "like" math as well at the end of the year as they did when they entered as measured by attitude questionnaires, homework done, etc.				
	80% of the students will advance one grade level in biology as measured by a school developed test.	60,000	2,000	$14,000	
	80% of the students will show the ability to examine social issues critically as indicated by a school developed test.	90,000	3,000	$14,000	
	All students will be provided with education on tobacco, alcohol, and narcotics. Effectiveness measured by sampling the tobacco and alcohol purchases at local stores and narcotics by several indicators, e.g. reported use, arrests, anonymous questionnaires, etc.	22,500	750	$ 4,000	
	All students will be provided with a comprehensive family living course including sex education. Effectiveness will be estimated by the number of unwanted pregnancies reported among school-age girls, VD reports sampling of local medical community, etc.	22,500	750	$ 5,000	
	All students will be provided with an exposure to art forms by two field trips to city art museums and an audio-visual course in art appreciation.	22,500	750	$ 1,500	
	80% will rank above 50 percentile on President's physical fitness scale.	22,500	750	$ 6,500	
					$90,000

"THE BUDGET"

A Simulation in Participatory Decision-Making

Situation: Senate Bill 90 has passed. The Buena Vista High School Advisory Council is meeting to advise on how new funds will be used in next year's program. The Council represents diverse interests. There is a principal, two teachers, two parents, a community representative, a student, and a school board member.

The time is the present. The third page shows a budget for this year. The budget is for the 9th grade only (not the whole school --for the purposes of simulation). This year's budget is $80,000 for the 9th grade. The committee's job is to recommend the addition of $10,000 to this budget for next year. You may cut existing program allocations if you wish, and you may add programs. You may change goal statements. However, you may not expend more than $90,000.

Other data: Total number of students of 9th grade: 100 (this year and next)

Per pupil costs: $800

If any other data is needed for your decisions, make assumptions.

The Chairman of your group is Mr. Kraftie, parent.
Your role is on the second page.

Your group has 45 minutes to solve its problem.
Good luck!

Members of the Council:
- Mr. Jim Mittle, Principal
- Mr. Bob Strong, Teacher and Representative of the Teacher Council
- Mrs. Ardy Turndon, Art Teacher
- Mr. Ed Kraftie, Parent and Chairman of the Council
- Mrs. Janie Black, Parent and PTA President
- Mr. Tom Hardy, Community Representative
- Ellie Kidd, Student and Student Body President
- Mr. John Leader, School Board Member

This exercise is adapted from: Robert C. Horn, "Participative Decision-Making: A Simulation," Information Resources, Inc., P. O. Box 493, Lexington, Mass. 02173. The source is not only recommended for the exercise, but also because it includes a most concise set of instructions (and bibliography) on how to "build" simulations.

K.A. Tye/Jan. '73

ROLE DESCRIPTION

Mrs. Ardy Turndon, Art Teacher

Below is your role description. Please study the interests of your role and try to represent your role as responsibly as possible. Use your best judgement and bring all of the good will you can to your role.

You want things changed in the school. You would like an "alternative school" established within Buena Vista.

You are opposed to "performance evaluation" because "we really can't measure the important things" (e.g., pupil attitudes, self concept).

The arts are underfinanced.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

BUDGET

The costs below include teacher salaries, books, equipment and supplies, and administrative overhead. Like many school budgets, teacher salary composes approximately 80% of sts. 180 school days.

NO.	SUBJECT AND GOAL	NO. OF STUD. HRS.	NO. OF TEACH. HRS.	COST THIS YEAR	COST NEXT YEAR
1	80% of the students in the class will advance one grade-level in reading skills and English language knowledge as measured by a standard test.	90,000	3,000	$15,000	
2a	80% of the students will advance one grade level in math (algebra) as measured by a standard test.	90,000	3,000	$20,000	
2b	95% of the students will "like" math as well at the end of the year as they did when they entered as measured by attitude questionnaires, homework done, etc.				
3	80% of the students will advance one grade level in biology as measured by a school developed test.	60,000	2,000	$14,000	
4	80% of the students will show the ability to examine social issues critically as indicated by a school developed test.	90,000	3,000	$14,000	
-	All students will be provided with education on tobacco, alcohol, and narcotics. Effectivdness measured by sampling the tobacco and alcohol purchases at local stores and narcotics by several indicators, e.g. reported use, arrests, anonymous questionnaires, etc.	22,500	750	$ 4,000	
6	All students will be provided with a comprehensive family living course including sex education. Effectiveness will be estimated by the number of unwanted pregnancies reported among school-age girls, VD reports sampling of local medical community, etc.	22,500	750	$ 5,000	
7	All students will be provided with an exposure to art forms by two field trips to city art museums and an audio-visual course in art appreciation.	22,500	750	$ 1,500	
8	80% will rank above 50 percentile on President's physical fitness scale.	22,500	750	$ 6,500	
					$90,000

"THE BUDGET"

A Simulation in Participatory Decision-Making

Situation: Senate Bill 90 has passed. The Buena Vista High School Advisory Council is meeting to advise on how new funds will be used in next year's program. The Council represents diverse interests. There is a principal, two teachers, two parents, a community representative, a student, and a school board member.

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Other data: Total number of students of 9th grade: 100 (this year and next)

Per pupil costs: $800

If any other data is needed for your decisions, make assumptions.

The Chairman of your group is Mr. Kraftie, parent.
Your role is on the second page.

Your group has 45 minutes to solve its problem.
Good luck!

Members of the Council:
- Mr. Jim Mittle, Principal
- Mr. Bob Strong, Teacher and Representative of the Teacher Council
- Mrs. Ardy Turndon, Art Teacher
- Mr. Ed Kraftie, Parent and Chairman of the Council
- Mrs. Janie Black, Parent and PTA President
- Mr. Tom Hardy, Community Representative
- Ellie Kidd, Student and Student Body President
- Mr. John Leader, School Board Member

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K.A. Tye/Jan. '73

ROLE DESCRIPTION

Mr. Ed Kraftie, Parent and Chairman of the Council

Below is your role description. Please study the interests of your role and try to represent your role as responsibly as possible. Use your best judgement and bring all of the good will you can to the role.

Above all, you want the Council to work well. You want it to be "democratic."

Personally, you feel that the school should take on an expanded role: involving the community in decision-making, taking responsibility for drug, sex and political education; and extending education outward from the campus to the community.

You are sympathetic to the problems of school people.

BUDGET

e costs below include teacher salaries, books, equipment and supplies, and administra-
ve overhead. Like many school budgets, teacher salary composes approximately 80% of
sts. 150 school days.

SUBJECT AND GOAL	NO. OF STUD. HRS.	NO. OF TEACH. HRS.	COST THIS YEAR	COST NEXT YEAR
80% of the students in the class will advance one grade-level in reading skills and English language knowledge as measured by a standard test.	90,000	3,000	$15,000	______
80% of the students will advance one grade level in math (algebra) as measured by a standard test.	90,000	3,000	$20,000	______
95% of the students will "like" math as well at the end of the year as they did when they entered as measured by attitude questionnaires, homework done, etc.				
80% of the students will advance one grade level in biology as measured by a school developed test.	60,000	2,000	$14,000	______
80% of the students will show the ability to examine social issues critically as indicated by a school developed test.	90,000	3,000	$14,000	______
All students will be provided with education on tobacco, alcohol, and narcotics. Effectiveness measured by sampling the tobacco and alcohol purchases at local stores and narcotics by several indicators, e.g. reported use, arrests, anonymous questionnaires, etc.	22,500	750	$ 4,000	______
All students will be provided with a comprehensive family living course including sex education. Effectiveness will be estimated by the number of unwanted pregnancies reported among school-age girls, VD reports sampling of local medical community, etc.	22,500	750	$ 5,000	______
All students will be provided with an exposure to art forms by two field trips to city art museums and an audio-visual course in art appreciation.	22,500	750	$ 1,500	______
80% will rank above 50 percentile on President's physical fitness scale.	22,500	750	$ 6,500	______
				$90,000

"THE BUDGET"

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A Simulation in Participatory
Decision-Making

Situation: Senate Bill 90 has passed. The Buena Vista High School Advisory Council is meeting to advise on how new funds will be used in next year's program. The Council represents diverse interests. There is a principal, two teachers, two parents, a community representative, a student, and a school board member.

The time is the present. The third page shows a budget for this year. The budget is for the 9th grade only (not the whole school --for the purposes of simulation). This year's budget is $80,000 for the 9th grade. The committee's job is to recommend the addition of $10,000 to this budget for next year. You may cut existing program allocations if you wish, and you may add programs. You may change goal statements. However, you may not expend more than $90,000.

Other data: Total number of students of 9th grade: 100 (this year and next)

Per pupil costs: $800

If any other data is needed for your decisions, make assumptions.

The Chairman of your group is Mr. Kraftie, parent.
Your role is on the second page.

Your group has 45 minutes to solve its problem.
Good luck!

Members of the Council:
- Mr. Jim Mittle, Principal
- Mr. Bob Strong, Teacher and Representative of the Teacher Council
- Mrs. Ardy Turndon, Art Teacher
- Mr. Ed Kraftie, Parent and Chairman of the Council
- Mrs. Janie Black, Parent and PTA President
- Mr. Tom Hardy, Community Representative
- Ellie Kidd, Student and Student Body President
- Mr. John Leader, School Board Member

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K.A. Tye/Jan. '73

ROLE #5

ROLE DESCRIPTION

Mrs. Janie Black, Parent and PTA President

Below is your role description. Please study the interests of your role and try to represent your role as responsibly as possible. Use your best judgement and bring all of the good will you can to the role.

You are anxious for your son to get into a college and into medical school.

There are many students in the school who will not go to college, and you feel that they should be prepared to enter the world of work upon graduation.

The general feeling in the PTA is that the homes should be responsible for education directly related to the values of the students, like sex, drugs, and health.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

BUDGET

The costs below include teacher salaries, books, equipment and supplies, and administrative overhead. Like many school budgets, teacher salary composes approximately 80% of costs. 180 school days.

NO.	SUBJECT AND GOAL	NO. OF STUD. HRS.	NO. OF TEACH. HRS.	COST THIS YEAR	COST NEXT YEAR
1	80% of the students in the class will advance one grade-level in reading skills and English language knowledge as measured by a standard test.	90,000	3,000	$15,000	____
2a	80% of the students will advance one grade level in math (algebra) as measured by a standard test.	90,000	3,000	$20,000	____
2b	95% of the students will "like" math as well at the end of the year as they did when they entered as measured by attitude questionnaires, homework done, etc.				
3	80% of the students will advance one grade level in biology as measured by a school developed test.	60,000	2,000	$14,000	____
4	80% of the students will show the ability to examine social issues critically as indicated by a school developed test.	90,000	3,000	$14,000	____
	All students will be provided with education on tobacco, alcohol, and narcotics. Effectiveness measured by sampling the tobacco and alcohol purchases at local stores and narcotics by several indicators, e.g. reported use, arrests, anonymous questionnaires, etc.	22,500	750	$ 4,000	____
6	All students will be provided with a comprehensive family living course including sex education. Effectiveness will be estimated by the number of unwanted pregnancies reported among school-age girls, VD reports sampling of local medical community, etc.	22,500	750	$ 5,000	____
7	All students will be provided with an exposure to art forms by two field trips to city art museums and an audio-visual course in art appreciation.	22,500	750	$ 1,500	____
8	80% will rank above 50 percentile on President's physical fitness scale.	22,500	750	$ 6,500	____
					$90,000

"THE BUDGET"

A Simulation in Participatory Decision-Making

Situation: Senate Bill 90 has passed. The Buena Vista High School Advisory Council is meeting to advise on how new funds will be used in next year's program. The Council represents diverse interests. There is a principal, two teachers, two parents, a community representative, a student, and a school board member.

The time is the present. The third page shows a budget for this year. The budget is for the 9th grade only (not the whole school --for the purposes of simulation). This year's budget is $80,000 for the 9th grade. The committee's job is to recommend the addition of $10,000 to this budget for next year. You may cut existing program allocations if you wish, and you may add programs. You may change goal statements. However, you may not expend more than $90,000.

Other data: Total number of students of 9th grade: 100 (this year and next)

Per pupil costs: $800

If any other data is needed for your decisions, make assumptions.

The Chairman of your group is Mr. Kraftie, parent.
Your role is on the second page.

Your group has 45 minutes to solve its problem.
Good luck!

Members of the Council:
- Mr. Jim Mittle, Principal
- Mr. Bob Strong, Teacher and Representative of the Teacher Council
- Mrs. Ardy Turndon, Art Teacher
- Mr. Ed Kraftie, Parent and Chairman of the Council
- Mrs. Janie Black, Parent and PTA President
- Mr. Tom Hardy, Community Representative
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K.A. Tye/Jan. '73

ROLE DESCRIPTION

Mr. Tom Hardy, Community Representative

Below is your role description. Please study the interests of your role and try to represent your role as responsibly as possible. Use your best judgement and bring all of the good will you can to the role.

You are concerned about the growing element of the student body which is experimenting with drugs.

Your best friend's daughter got pregnant last year. You would like to see the school do something about student morals.

You are anxious to eliminate the frills from the curriculum. You learned from books. Why do the students today need a $3,000 leased computer to learn math?

You believe that schools should be run like businesses.

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BUDGET

The costs below include teacher salaries, books, equipment and supplies, and administrative overhead. Like many school budgets, teacher salary composes approximately 80% of sts. 180 school days.

O.	SUBJECT AND GOAL	NO. OF STUD. HRS.	NO. OF TEACH. HRS.	COST THIS YEAR	COST NEXT YEAR
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2a	80% of the students will advance one grade level in math (algebra) as measured by a standard test.	90,000	3,000	$20,000	____
2b	95% of the students will "like" math as well at the end of the year as they did when they entered as measured by attitude questionnaires, homework done, etc.				
3	80% of the students will advance one grade level in biology as measured by a school developed test.	60,000	2,000	$14,000	____
4	80% of the students will show the ability to examine social issues critically as indicated by a school developed test.	90,000	3,000	$14,000	____
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	All students will be provided with a comprehensive family living course including sex education. Effectiveness will be estimated by the number of unwanted pregnancies reported among school-age girls, VD reports sampling of local medical community, etc.	22,500	750	$ 5,000	____
7	All students will be provided with an exposure to art forms by two field trips to city art museums and an audio-visual course in art appreciation.	22,500	750	$ 1,500	____
8	80% will rank above 50 percentile on President's physical fitness scale.	22,500	750	$ 6,500	____
					$90,000

"THE BUDGET"

A Simulation in Participatory Decision-Making

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Other data: Total number of students of 9th grade: 100 (this year and next)
Per pupil costs: $800

If any other data is needed for your decisions, make assumptions.

The Chairman of your group is Mr. Kraftie, parent.
Your role is on the second page.

Your group has 45 minutes to solve its problem.
Good luck!

Members of the Council:
Mr. Jim Mittle, Principal
Mr. Bob Strong, Teacher and Representative of the Teacher Council
Mrs. Ardy Turndon, Art Teacher
Mr. Ed Kraftie, Parent and Chairman of the Council
Mrs. Janie Black, Parent and PTA President
Mr. Tom Hardy, Community Representative
Ellie Kidd, Student and Student Body President
Mr. John Leader, School Board Member

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K.A. Tye/Jan. '73

ROLE DESCRIPTION

Ellie Kidd, Student and Student Body President

This is your role description. Please study the interests of your role and try to represent your role as responsibly as possible. Use your best judgement and bring all of the good will you can to the role.

Not all the students in the school will go to college. They should be prepared to go into the world of work, if this is their goal, at graduation.

The students should be prepared to do the work in the better colleges if they wish.

Some students strongly and vocally oppose having sex education in the school. Others find it their only source of reliable information.

Some kids question why there is so much emphasis upon interschool athletics when they don't benefit from them.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

BUDGET

The costs below include teacher salaries, books, equipment and supplies, and administrative overhead. Like many school budgets, teacher salary composes approximately 80% of st.. 180 school days.

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3	80% of the students will advance one grade level in biology as measured by a school developed test.	60,000	2,000	$14,000	____
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"THE BUDGET"

A Simulation in Participatory Decision-Making

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Other data: Total number of students of 9th grade: 100 (this year and next)
Per pupil costs: $800

If any other data is needed for your decisions, make assumptions.

The Chairman of your group is Mr. Kraftie, parent.
Your role is on the second page.

Your group has 45 minutes to solve its problem.
Good luck!

Members of the Council:
- Mr. Jim Mittle, Principal
- Mr. Bob Strong, Teacher and Representative of the Teacher Council
- Mrs. Ardy Turndon, Art Teacher
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K.A. Tye/Jan. '73

ROLE #8

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ROLE DESCRIPTION

Mr. John Leader, School Board Member

Below is your role description. Please study the interests of your role and try to represent your role as responsibly as possible. Use your best judgement and bring all of the good will you can to the role.

You want to get re-elected. This depends on your pleasing the taxpayers and parents of your district by representing their interests in this group. Although you realize that objective tests cannot measure all the goals of the school, you know that the school is judged externally on the basis of objective test performance. You hold the principal directly responsible for the school's poor performance this year and you expect him to hold teachers responsible for their performance, also.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

BUDGET

The costs below include teacher salaries, books, equipment and supplies, and administrative overhead. Like many school budgets, teacher salary composes approximately 80% of costs. 180 school days.

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8	80% will rank above 50 percentile on President's physical fitness scale.	22,500	750	$ 6,500	____
					$90,000

COMMUNICATION SYSTEMS

An Introduction

Mr. Rodger E. Cryer
Project Director
Shared Decision Making Project

Dr. James L. Olivero
Prime Consultant

Dr. Hollis H. Moore
Project Consultant

Ms. Wendy Portnuff
Project Consultant

Dr. Virgil S. Hollis
Superintendent
Marin County Schools

COMMUNICATION SYSTEMS

Available Materials

Clearly, communicating the "decision" to those who will be affected by a decision is often a delicate task. While there is agreement that this process is significant, the shared decision making project researchers were neither able to identify specific training packages which would assist with the total area nor were they able to develop prototype materials for subsequent field testing and development. Our concern has led, however, to one important conclusion--that the paucity of training materials in this area underscores one of the major voids in training documentation.

The Interpersonal Communications training materials we have included in our listing appear to be one set of training packages which are conducive to improving in-group communication. (This package is available from the Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 500 Lindsay Building, 710 S. W. Second Avenue, Portland, Oregon 97204.) Other training sequences are offered by the NTL (National Training Laboratory), TET (Teacher Effectiveness Training) and other human awareness and sensitivity training groups and seem to provide reasonable assists for responsible in-group communication. Each of these programs, in some fashion, tends to emphasize skills such as reflective thinking, paraphrasing, listening, etc.

Important as these skills may be, the "communication" factor in decision making refers more broadly to the communication of results of the decision making groups' work to those who, although not involved in making the decision, are directly affected by the decision or can influence the effectiveness of the decision either directly or indirectly.

Inter- and Intra-Group Communications

In our experience, we have seen several instances where people affected by decisions but not involved in making them have voiced doubts about the credibility of the decision makers. We suspect there are sufficient examples from our social experiences reinforcing this concept so as to warrant special attention to the issue. Our reading of the literature relative to the communication of decisions to "others", i.e., anyone not part of the decision making group, has uncovered considerable use of the concept of "trust." "Trust" is a noble and global concept--and, even though it becomes a somewhat nebulous term, the word seems to encompass the very essence of the attitudes and perceptions which need to be fostered between the "in" and the "out-group."

This trust is developed in a variety of ways, for example:

1. By establishing mechanisms in the decision making model whereby anyone can offer input on a matter under consideration by the group. (Inter-Group)
2. By establishing mechanisms in the decision making model which permit greater understanding of "how" decisions were made for those not involved in the group. (Intra-Group)
3. By establishing mechanisms in the decision making model which permit, at any reasonable time, opportunities for both those

within the group and outside of the group to request reconsideration of the decision. (Follow-up Appeal and Quality Control)

The first topic above is emphasized in other portions of the available materials; we offer a few suggestions here on the second topic, though we are aware of few specific training materials on this aspect of communication.

We feel that certain actions can be taken to alleviate the tendency for people affected by decisions to characterize decision makers as those who plan clandestine activities behind closed-doors in smoke filled rooms. For example, schedule meetings on an open, anyone invited basis, at a time when most could attend, if they chose to. Also, provide the attendees an opportunity to raise concerns so that the decision group can deal with such issues openly and appropriately. Other alleviating actions, for example, may be for decision makers to stress communication on a personal basis (face-to-face) rather than to rely solely upon written documents for such important communication.

It may be that receivers of decisions can be made to feel better about decisions if they are aware of the reasons why particular decisions were made. That is, knowing what alternatives were considered before final action was taken. Although some people may continue to disagree with the actual decision, they are frequently more likely to implement the action following from the decisions if they are convinced the decision process was not arbitrary or capricious.

Finally, a mechanism in the decision making model for disseminating and recording decisions must be established. This procedural technique helps reduce ambiguity about decisions arising from less formal "rumor mill" type communications.

Certainly, there is much those interested in shared decision making need to learn about communicating decisions. Hopefully, feedback information from concerned practitioners will begin to illuminate this complex topic--ultimately allowing for pertinent training materials to be conceived, written and tested. Until such a time, application of existing materials, though only partially appropriate, will have to suffice. Procedures developed at the building level to address and at least improve effectiveness in this crucial area are greatly encouraged by the authors.

ACCOUNTABILITY
AND
RESPONSIBILITY

A TRAINING GUIDE - Leaders

Rodger E. Cryer
Project Director

Primary Consultants
James L. Olivero, Ed.D.
Hollis H. Moore, Ph.D.
Wendy Portnuff

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ACCOUNTABILITY AND RESPONSIBILITY

PART I

Leader's Instructions

For the Training Program Leader:

This training package is designed for members of decision making groups. In addition, some suggested exercises in the package encourage those in the decision groups to work with others outside their groups to accept accountability and responsibility for decisions once they have been made.

A review of empirical data from practitioners on shared decision making has helped to determine the need for such a package. Unfortunately, although many people have identified the onerous difficulty of getting acceptance of a decision and carrying out the intent of the decision, a search of training programs purportedly designed to help overcome this difficulty has been largely unrewarding. In brief, no such training programs were found--hence, the development of this package

The leader should understand that there is much we still do not know about preparing people to accept responsibility for decisions which are made. There will be times, perhaps, when situations may arise during the implementation of the suggested training sequences when the leader may feel fairly alone because the package contents do not supply all the necessary resources for the predicament in which the leader finds himself. Candidly, however, the leader should be aware that what is available in the package (to the best of our knowledge and interpretation) reflects the "state of the art" at this time. In this regard, the authors would urge that all users of this package analyze the times when feelings of "uncertainty" due to the voids in the package occur and that they appropriately attempt to report their struggles and techniques for recovery from the situations. These reports could be useful in subsequent package developmental efforts.

To complete the training, the following are recommended:

1. The leader should "think through" the training sessions prior to undertaking the training with participants.

2. The leader should preferably be an individual who is not a regular member of the group being trained, and,

3. The training sessions for objectives #1 and #2 (see next two pages of the training materials) should preferably be at a time when the participants can get away from telephones and other interruptions for at least a seven hour period of time. Some training sessions work best when they can be initiated one evening and carried out through noon of the second day. This arrangement allows for time to think and digest the ideas generated throughout the working sessions.

PART II

PERFORMANCE OBJECTIVES

The following four statements should be carefully examined by participants and workshop leaders. They constitute the central functions intended for the workshop and thus you may wish to refer to the objectives from time to time throughout the workshop experience.

This training module has four specific objectives:

1. Given the need to establish individual and group accountability and responsibility following a decision, the participants will become aware of relevant research and information on this topic.

   Evidence: Participants will demonstrate their awareness and knowledge of such information by completing a post-test based on the authors interpretation of literature, research studies, and field interviews from schools attempting to improve shared decision making practices. Participants will answer 9 out of the 10 questions correctly.

2. Given the need to establish individual accountability and responsibility following a decision, each participant will be able to complete a planned design for upholding decisions.

   Evidence: Participants will be able to prepare an approach or system for improving follow through on decisions made. Each participant will prepare one planned format before terminating the training session, and the group will attempt to arrive at consensus on an approach to "try out." At least, a group commitment to pursue this important subject should be obtained.

3. Given the need to establish group accountability and responsibility following a decision, a system for obtaining group support will be studied and learned

   Evidence: The group will be able to initiate a prepared system for group action to uphold the results of a decision. The group will attempt to complete one planned format before terminating the training session to achieve a reasonable "action plan."

4. Given the need to establish a workable plan for both individual and group responsibility following a decision, specific plans are to be generated by the participants for arrival at group consensus and commitment.

   Evidence: Two plans will emerge from the efforts of the group. Acceptable plans will be incorporated into the ongoing shared decision making procedures at the school.

PART III

Leaders Instructions for Participants Introduction

In the introductory paragraphs for participants the discussion turns to the idea of allowing for a periodic review of decisions at a set interval. The psychological and accountability aspects of such a built in review must be stressed. The leader should be prepared to explain the idea of including a review loop in a decision making model, while being aware that the training procedures in this particular model do not sharply focus on these issues. If the issues need greater attention (in the best estimation of the leader), the leader may wish to suggest to the group that participants consider reviewing the "Models for Decision Making" module for further information and training.*

This module, then, addresses primarily individual and group accountability. It should be stressed that the leader should read and become familiar with both the Leaders Guide and the Participants Guide prior to the workshop. If these documents have been carefully reviewed, the leader should now continue with the next section of the module--beginning with the specific objectives and the diagnostic test instrument.

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* Available from Dr. Raymond G. Melton, Director, National Cluster Coordination Center, 2418 Hatton Street, Sarasota, Florida 33577

PART IV

SUGGESTED AGENDA

Steps	Group Size	Activity	Time Sequence
I	Large Group	Participants introduce themselves and Leader outlines objectives for the workshop	30 Minutes
II	Small Group	Leader divides participants into groups with no more than 10 people. Small groups attempt to generate lists of problems with accountability for shared decision making	30 Minutes
III	Large Group	Leader summarizes what research and organizational literature have to say about accountability. States purpose for administering diagnostic test and distributes it	45 Minutes
IV	Independent Study	Individuals complete the diagnostic test and review their answers with the answers provided by the authors of this training module	20 Minutes
V	Coffee Break etc.		20 Minutes
VI	Large Group	Leader amplifies information regarding responses to the diagnostic test and sets stage for remainder of the training session. Briefly discusses decision making alternatives for "group" accountability	45 Minutes
VII	Small Group	Discuss models for decision making and criteria for effectiveness	30 Minutes
VIII	Large Group	Recorders from small groups offer feedback on decision making model discussions. Leader comments on plans suggested to establish accountability and responsibility on the part of the individual	45 Minutes
IX	Coffee Break etc.		15 Minutes
X	Individual Study	Individuals review the simulated decision exercise and complete "Accountability Instrument"	20 Minutes
XI	Large Group	Review feedback from "Accountability Instrument" and establish general rules for monitoring committees to work in small groups	20 Minutes
XII	Small Group	Simulated "Monitoring Committees" Review Part III of "Accountability Instrument"	30 Minutes
XIII	Large Group	Summary Session -- summarize small group work; consider subsequent activities;	40 Minutes

* Editors Note: The time recommended for completion of this package is approximately 6 hours. The agenda might be covered, exclusive of teacher preparation time, in one workshop day.

PART V

Background Discussion and General Instructions

The authors have discussed the need for both individuals and groups to accept responsibility and accountability for decisions once they have been made. There are a number of avenues available for accomplishing this important purpose. Only one approach will be discussed in this module. Initially, the factors related to "group" responsibility will be examined. Later, attention will be given to the issues surrounding "individual" responsibility. Obviously, however, group accountability cannot be attained if individual accountability is not first practiced.

One of the places to look for group accountability and responsibility is in the decision making model itself. The authors believe one can reasonably assume that group responsibility will not be possible if some review mechanism is not built into the decision making system. That is, does the decision making model have a review mechanism which enables members of a decision making group to periodically consider the consequences of decisions they have made--and does the group solicit information from those outside the group in order to help determine the influence and real impact of their group decisions.

To clarify this matter, the leader should ask the participants to look at the shared decision making models (see step VI of the suggested Agenda) and consider the following questions:

1. Is there a standing committee or an ad hoc committee specifically established to review consequences of decisions?
2. Is there a plan at the decision making episode point to record decisions?
3. Is there an interval when each decision is formally reviewed?
4. Is the review responsibility assigned to a specific individual?
5. Does the model offer the possibility for changing a decision should additional data suggest such a change?

After the leader raises these issues and illustrates how one might obtain such information from a review of the models, he/she should ask the participants to break up into small groups to facilitate discussion of the decision making models* and, after a sufficient interval, to return to the larger group prepared to analyze the potential effectiveness of the models which have some sort of built-in review process (see step VII of the suggested agenda).

The leader should assign the person with the longest nair in the group to assume the role of group leader. The group leader should then ask the person with the shortest hair to be the recorder for the discussion.

When the small group participants report to the large group, the leader should provide sufficient time for the recorders to report on the observations of the participants in the small group settings (see step VIII of the suggested agenda).

* provided by the leader

During the time the participants are in the small groups, each participant should ask the questions listed above regarding shared decision making models. While there is no universally "best" model, the members of the small group should attempt to rank the models according to the potential power of the model. More important than the resulting ranking are the reasoning processes which go into the rank ordering.

The workshop leader should remind small group participants that the part of the model which they are primarily considering is the part which has to do with assuring individual and/or group accountability. While the members may be intersted in other portions of the decision making model, they are asked to rank the models according to the likeliness that decisions will be carried out (the potential power of the model).

In brief, small group activity discussion of models for decision making (step VII of the Suggested Agenda) should consist of the following:

1. Selection of the small group leader and recorder,
2. Provision of models for the small group to consider,
3. Having the small group analyze the decision making models for the likely potential that decisions will be supported by the people most affected by the decision,
4. Having the participants rank order the models from best to poorest (most powerful to least powerful), and
5. Having the small group leader prepared to give interpretations back to the large group.

When the large group reassembles, the workshop leader should have small group leaders report on the discussions which took place. The leader, also, should collect the rankings of the models and should tally these on a chalk board or newsprint pad.

After small group leaders have had the opportunity to report their conclusions, the workshop leader should provide additional interpretative remarks analyzing discussions. The leader, among other things, should point out that no one decision making model is "universally best" but that some--particularly those having a "review loop"--are apparently potentially more powerful models. He should conclude his interpretation with the point that models are only as good as their implementation; that is, that a model may look outstanding but if the assumptions on which the model was based are not carried out, there is little hope that well-planned decision making will result.

Once there has been an opportunity for discussion to subside regarding the "review loop" in the model, the workshop leader should direct the attention of the participants to the need to encourage accountability on the part of each individual staff member. Because many ways to do this exist, the workshop leader should underscore the notion that the one approach being advocated here represents only one procedure among many possibilities.

The procedure to be explored includes:

1. A system for obtaining individual commitment to a decision, and,

2. A monitoring group to ascertain whether or not the decision is being supported as staff members have indicated by their willingness to lend support.

Because the decision making group may be most knowledgeable about action which will be necessary to carry out the intent of a decision, there is space on the form* for decision makers to indicate one or more specific actions that they can take to support the decision.

In this system, the first step is to list on a form the results of the decision and some of the discussion that helped produce the decision. Then, individual staff members who are external to the decision making group should indicate on the form what they can do to support the action taken by the decision making group. The form should be returned to the chairman of the monitoring committee so that the committee will know what kind of information to consider during a formal review session (as established by the decision making model). The monitoring committee is formed from a group of staff members, outside of the decision making group, having as their task, the obligation to monitor the actions of staff members in support of a decision. These must be the actions staff members themselves have said they will take.

The committee may be either a standing committee or an *ad hoc* committee. They may be appointed, elected or they may decide to volunteer for the positions. Specific arrangements should be established and consensus, if possible, should be achieved from all staff members of the school. One precaution the authors of this package offer is to make certain the members of the monitoring committee are not administrators. Some reasons for this precaution are obvious; however, one reason should receive special attention. From the empirical evidence available, there is a tendency to believe (even in the schools where shared decision making is practiced) that administrators manipulate the decision makers in one way or another so the decisions reflect what administrators desire. Hence, if administrators are part of the monitoring committee, there tends to be an increased belief that efforts are being made to control and influence decisions.

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* (see Accountability Instrument for Participants - Appendix A of this document)

A final word about the accountability instrument form! The workshop leader should point out that the form is not only used to obtain commitment from other members of the staff, but it is also used as a communication device to help those who are affected learn about a decision. While "communicating the results of a decision" is not the aim of this training package, this element is part of the Master Matrix and it is considered an essential variable.

The workshop leader should make certain that the above points are mastered before proceeding to the next step of the workshop. Open discussion may facilitate this step.

The leader (step VIII of the Suggested Agenda) should make available to the participants a copy of the "Accountability Instrument" (see Appendix A). The leader should call to the attention of the participants the fact that the top portion of the instrument has been completed. This indicates to the participants that a decision had previously been made by a decision making group. Part II of the form attempts to summarize some of the thought that went into the decision.

The task of the participants in the workshop and the charge that the workshop leader gives is that each participant is to complete Part IV of the "Accountability Instrument". Each individual should state in Part IV what he will do to uphold the decision (see individual review of the Accountability Instrument--step X of the Suggested Agenda). When the instrument has thus been completed, the participants should reassemble in one group to discuss the instrument and the range of individual responses.

The "Accountability Instrument", particularly in Part I, the decision, and Part II, the discussion, is designed to help transmit information regarding decisions as well as to transmit some brief information outlining additional assistance necessary to carry out the intent of the decision. For the sample document included as a part of the training package, the workshop leader should call attention to the possible different levels of authority. For instance, the leader could point out the legal authority of the School Board to establish self-renewal days for teachers and administration within the district. The leader could further illustrate the responsibility of the decision making group to establish two days of self-renewal for its own purposes; and, finally, the leader could illustrate how the remainder of the staff might participate in shared decision making.

The concept of "freedom within a structure" is an all-important matter as illustrated by the example chosen. That is, one group has authority when another has established the boundaries from within which the "lower" group can operate. This arrangement seems to work reasonably well where "lower" groups have open avenues to influence the "upper" groups in the structure. Throughout our social fabric, there are almost always certain limitations, either natural or intentional, which influence the degrees of freedom one enjoys.

The workshop leader (see Step XI of the Suggested Agenda) should ask some of the participants to share their response statements with others in the large group setting. To establish the tone for this feedback session, the leader should ask the participants in the large group to imagine that they are members of an _ad hoc_ committee appointed by the decision making group. Then, as statements are read, the workshop leader may wish to comment on them in light of the concerns which represent special interests of the monitoring committee. The leader performing this service will set the stage for the next activity.

After the large group feedback, the participants should divide into smaller groups (preferably no more than ten (10) members each).

Each group should play the role of the monitoring committee as if teachers on the staff had submitted the "Accountability Instrument" to them for monitoring. It is suggested that the person in the small group with the blouse or shirt closest to the red end of the rainbow spectrum should be named the task leader and the person with the blouse or shirt nearest the violet end of the rainbow spectrum should be made the recorder (e.g. biolet, blue, green, yellow, orange, red).

The Self-Commitment Section of each of the ten (10) (depending upon the size of the small group) "Accountability Instruments" should be analyzed by the simulated monitoring committee (as in Simulated "Monitoring Committees", of the Suggested Agenda). As the instruments are reviewed, some or all of the following questions should be raised:

1. Does it appear from the response in the Self-Commitment section of the "Accountability Instrument" that the person completing the instrument understood the decision?

2. Does it appear that the person completing the instrument will support the decision? What evidence can you develop to rely upon?

3. Does it appear from the instrument that the individual completing the instrument has some specific way to support the decision; that is, what specific action does the individual say he/she will take to carry out the decision?

4. Did the individual volunteer to do any additional work on the topic under consideration, e.g., did the individual make any attempt

to volunteer for the committee to determine other self-renewal days?

5. Can the "actions" stated by the individuals be categorized into different types of major areas for monitoring purposes?

6. What kinds of actions would the monitoring committee undertake to assure that staff members were supporting previously made decisions?

While the small groups are engaging in their discussions, the workshop leader should move in and out of the groups attempting to get a feel for difficulties the small groups are encountering. Undoubtedly the groups will have some difficulties, especially if they begin to ask such questions as:

1 - How do we find time to do our monitoring responsibilities?

2 - What should we do if a staff member says he will do something to support a decision but in actual practice he doesn't?

3 - What is a reasonable interval for a review date so a decision can be given other consideration?

These questions are, indeed, complex and the authors do not claim to have sufficient empirical evidence to answer the issues completely. The authors have attempted to rely on what has been tried, hoping that additional data may be obtained through additional usage. Theoretically, feedback data should help to give some clues to answering the above questions.

If the small group participants avoid raising the "tough" questions, workshop leaders should make certain to raise the issues during a summary session. The summary session (see Step XIII of the Suggested Agenda) has four major foci:

1. Summarizing results of small group work in Part IV of the "Accountability Instrument".
2. Raising "subsequent" issues once the monitoring committee begins functioning.
3. Administering the post test.
4. Obtaining a commitment for action at the program conclusion.

Additional information regarding each of these four factors seems pertinent.

1. Summarizing Results - the workshop leader should focus primarily on the issues related to Part IV of the "Accountability Instrument". That is, analysis should be given to the question of how a monitoring team would follow up to see if a person was carrying out his self-commitment.

Any decision may be rendered ineffective if one or both of the following mattera are not considered:

A. Was the decision "correct" in the first place?

B. Was the decision less than powerful because the actions necessary to support the decision were not carried out? (It is possible to make reasonable decisions; however, if they are not acted upon, the results may be more frustrating than if the issue had never been dealt with.)

2. Subsequent Constraints - assuming a monitoring committee is instituted, there will undoubtedly be constraints which make the tasks of the monitoring committee difficult. The authors take the position that

any problem may be resolved if the people involved wish to invest the the resources necessary (i.e., time, energy, thought, sharing, problem solving skills, etc.).

As a training skill, however, the workshop leader should conduct a brief training session on the use of the "force field analysis" and "brainstorming" techniques. (Presuming the workshop leader is trained in the use of such techniques and can transmit the procedures to others.)

When teaching the techniques the workshop leader should use a "live" or realistic example of the constraints identified by a simulated monitoring committee. It will be impossible to do a force field on each of the constraints and it is true that actual constraints will differ in different institutions. For these two reasons, the workshop leader is actually teaching a *process* for overcoming constraints rather than trying *to solve* the problems that may emerge locally.

4. *Obtaining Commitment for Action* - there is no clear-cut formula for assuring that follow-up activity will occur. Perhaps the most that can be reasonably expected from the workshop are testimonials from participants about how they plan to proceed following the workshop.

A key question that can be raised by the workshop leader is, "Where do we go from here?" Psychologically, if the participants are willing to make public testimony they are more likely to follow up on their statements than people who simply "nod yes" without registering a definite, planned commitment.

In keeping with the purpose of the workshop, the leader might hand out a blank "Accountability Instrument" and ask the participants to complete Part III, Recommendations for Action, of the document as if the first two sections were completed and as if a decision had been made to have a monitoring committee. When the instrument has been completed, it should be collected and held by a representative of the school who will then agree to review the documents two months after the workshop to see if the recommendations for action have been followed, and if not, ask "why not?"

At the final conclusion of the workshop, sprinkle the water -- bless the people -- stand back and hope for the best!

APPENDIX A

ACCOUNTABILITY INSTRUMENT
FOR PARTICIPANTS

ACCOUNTABILITY INSTRUMENT
(COMPLETED)

Part I: Decision

The decision making group has determined that seven half-days for self-renewal will be established for the 1972-73 school year. Two of the activities of the self-renewal effort will be determined by the decision making group and a special ad hoc committee (appointed by the decision making group) will determine by surveying other staff members the remaining workshop topics.

Part II: Discussion

The Board of Education has established seven half-days for self-renewal and in service during the 1972-73 school year and three days have been placed on the official school district calendar. Because of the need to have continued work on shared decision making activities, two days have been set aside to continue staff training. Clearly there are other staff needs that can be met via the self-renewal days and the decision making group is soliciting staff members to participate on an ad hoc committee to determine what would be appropriate for other training sessions.

Part III: Recommendation(s) for Action

1. Volunteer to serve on the ad hoc committee to consider alternative self-renewal days.

2. Carefully analyze personal needs for self-renewal recommendations.

3. Participate in the self-renewal days.

Part IV: Self-Commitment

(This section should be completed by the staff member and turned in to the mail box reserved for the chairperson of the decision making group.

(date)

(signature of individual)

ACCOUNTABILITY INSTRUMENT
(BLANK)

Part I: Decision

Part II: Discussion

Part III: Recommendation(s) for Action

detach here

- -

Part IV: Self-Commitment (This section should be completed by the staff member and turned in to the mail box reserved for the chairperson of the decision making group.)

(date) (signature of individual)

APPENDIX B

DIAGNOSTIC TEST

THE DIAGNOSTIC TEST

A copy of the Diagnostic Test should now be given to each participant. As participants complete the items they may self-score the test, using the answers provided. Those who finish the test items quickly may wish to read and review the Additional Responses handout document.

Before moving to specific activities in the training package, the leader should explain to the participants that not all people need training in this particular area. The diagnostic test should, therefore, help to identify those who do and those who do not need assistance. Beyond this differentiation between the two types of participants, the diagnostic test may be used to identify staff assistants who could help in the training sequence. In this case, those who do well on the diagnostic test and are interested may serve profitably as assistants or discussion leaders with the other participants.

Missing two or more questions suggests that continuation with the training is advised. If fewer than two questions are missed, the participant may discontinue the training, or complete only the final phases at his or her own choice. Please see Part V for a Suggested Agenda. The suggested agenda may be of additional help to those who qualify. Each participant may select the most appropriate training sequences for his needs as diagnosed by the test.

DIAGNOSTIC TEST

Directions: Select the most appropriate answer and circle your choice. When the test is completed score the test using the answer sheet on the back of the test.

1. Experience has shown that to date, most schools involved in shared decision making have had their staffs involved in specific training to learn about sharing responsibility and accountability. T F

2. Too often, educators associate "accountability" simply with putting minutes of meetings in teachers' mailboxes. T F

3. Shared decision making bodies in schools seem to both want and expect to have full responsibility for their decisions. T F

4. "Accountability" can be most easily achieved when decision making group bases its actions on reasonably completed, accurate, and relevant data. T F

5. Of schools attempting to implement shared decision making, most have successfully utilized a review process following the actual trial of an important decision. T F

6. Getting people in the "outgroup" to accept decisions made by a representative group of decision makers may be closely related to the quality of communications in a school. T F

7. Individual responsibility and group responsibility matters are essentially the same thing. T F

8. While most teachers believe greater responsiblity for decisions is accepted when they participate in decision making, administrators tend to have reservations about teachers being willing to accept necessary responsibility and accountability associated with shared decision making. T F

9. Most teachers believe there is little possibility for "real" staff involvement without decision making power. T F

10. Which of the following has not been expressed as a frequent problem in shared decision making?

    A. Lack of understanding about the process of shared decision making.

    B. Members of decision making groups are sometimes not "strong" enough to resist less well informed faculty pressures.

    C. A specific form for review of decisions made is available and used.

    D. Lack of trust. Many things remain unsaid only to appear later through someone's failure to fulfill an obligation to a group decision.

ANSWERS TO DIAGNOSTIC TEST

1. False
2. True
3. False
4. True
5. False
6. True
7. False
8. True
9. True
10. "C"

APPENDIX C

AREAS OF CONCERN
IN
SHARED DECISION MAKING

AREAS OF CONCERN

	Resources Available	Practitioner's Questions A	Responses to Questions from Practitioners B	Organizational Development Materials and Programs C	Human Resources D
1	RATIONALE FOR SHARED DECISION MAKING PROS & CONS				
2	PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS & INSTITUTIONAL VALUES				
3	DECISION MAKING MODELS				
4	LOCATION OF AND APPROPRIATENESS OF DECISION MAKING RESPONSIBILITY (POWER)				
5	PROBLEM SOLVING & DECISION MAKING PROCESSES				
6	COMMUNICATION SYSTEMS				
7	ACCOUNTABILITY FOR DECISIONS				
8	ASSESSING DECISION MAKING EFFECTIVENESS & EFFICIENCY				

APPENDIX D

ADDITIONAL RESPONSES
TO TEST ITEMS

ADDITIONAL RESPONSES TO DIAGNOSTIC TEST*

1. Experience has shown that to date, most schools involved in shared decision making have had their staffs involved in specific training to learn about sharing responsibility and accountability. FALSE.

   Apparently few schools have had their personnel engaged in training programs to learn specific techniques for accepting accountability. During the early days of shared decision making, most people failed to recognize the importance and/or necessity of monitoring actions which support shared decision making. Most of the schools engaged themselves in training programs which would help personnel within the schools learn to "make decisions". Now that techniques for the actual making of decisions have been pretty well articulated in the problem solving literature, at least theoretically, it is necessary to look to other elements reflected in the Areas of Concerns Chart. One important concern identified by the authors is the need to establish accountability and responsibility for decisions agreed upon and carried out by those who are affected.

2. Too often, educators associate "accountability" simply with putting minutes of meetings in teachers' mailboxes. TRUE.

   It is difficult to document the hypothesis of the authors' that school staff members really believe that putting minutes of decision making meetings into the mailboxes of other staff members is accomplishing accountability. It does appear, however, that in practice "accountability" is synonymous with "minutes in mailboxes" because this is the primary way in which the matter seems to be carried out. Anyone who has been around educators for any length of time is more than moderately aware of the syndrome of the non-reading educator (more typical than atypical). For years, administrators and teachers have put memos in staff mailboxes only to find the memos were either ignored, unread, or in some way disposed of. To continue this approach seems wasteful. The fact that a memo comes from a group rather than from an individual seems to have little impact as far as getting the minutes read is concerned. It is clear that if people are to be genuinely accountable for decisions, they must internalize their specific responsibilities for carrying out such decisions.

3. Shared decision making bodies in schools seem to both want and expect to have full responsibility for their decisions. FALSE.

   The data gathered in this study, would tend to support the hypothesis that for the most part, principals have "veto" power or they are ex-officio members of the decision making group, and by their presence and ability to articulate matters they have the tendency to sway the remainder of the decision makers who might vote in a manner counter to the response they offer when the principal is present. Most deicison making models in the schools call for the principal to have "veto" power-perhaps because the Board of Education has failed to delineate what responsibilities can be decentralized. It is hard to determine where the "control" for the final responsibility resides if the ground rules are not spelled out. Theoretically, at least, many of the decision making group members would be willing to take on complete responsibility if they also had complete authority. At this time it is impossible for Boards of Education to delegate all control (and probably unwise if they could) and exactly what can be delegated, in most cases, has not been defined. This matter will need careful attention if shared decision making is to develop successfully in public schools. The entire matter is very complex, but at this time it appears that most members of shared decision making groups do not want or expect to have the final say and/or authority on all matters. It does appear, on the other hand, that in those schools where shared decision making efforts have seemed to work most effectively, groups apparently have been willing to take on more and more responsibility.

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* Leader: This handout should be copied in sufficient quantities so that each participant can have a complete set.

4. "Accountability" can be most easily achieved when decision making group bases its actions on reasonably completed, accurate, and relevant data. TRUE.

Obviously, those decisions which are made after careful discussion and analysis are likely to be those for which agreement and support can be obtained from non-participants of the decision making group. For "good" decisions to be made, relevant data and background information for making the decision should be gathered and used as much as feasible, appropriate and practical. When this has been done consistently by a decision making group there is greater credibility established with those who will be carrying out the decisions; generally, the greater the credibility, the greater the support which can be expected form the body at large. Even when "benevolent despots" have been very effective in their roles -- and despots are often more efficient than shared decision making groups--their effectiveness is usually generated as a result of "trust" in an individual rather than as a result of those carrying out the decisions actually understanding the factors which were weighed when the decisions were made.

5. Of schools attempting to implement shared decision making, most have successfully utilized a review process following the actual trial of an important decision. FALSE.

From this study, very few schools seem to have a systematic "review" process built into the shared decision making plan whereby decisions made on one date are analyzed later based on their actual consequences. Schools which do have the "review" mechanism generally seem to have greater accountability because those reviewing the decision take a look not only at the results of the decision, but the reasons the decision may have or may not have been implemented by members of the staff. It is a hypothesis of the authors that even when important decisions are made, there is seldom a genuine 100% support of those decisions. Schools which do not plan a "review" mechanism are potentially developing difficulty for themselves for at least two reasons: (1) Staff members are not likely to try new approaches if they seemingly must live with the new approach forever; and, (2) New data often generate information requiring different decisions.

6. Getting people in the "outgroup" to accept decisions made by a representative group of decision makers may be closely related to the quality of communications in a school. TRUE.

In almost any work setting or organization framework involving many people, the "communication" problem is always potentially an important factor which needs careful attention and action. Undoubtedly, one of the major problems with shared decision making is effectively communicating the results of decisions once they have been made. Little attention was given to this matter during the early days of shared decision making, but greater realization of its importance is being discussed now by those who are concerned with this oversight. As surprising as it may seem, some schools have been involved in shared decision making without bothering to keep minutes recording the major decisions that have been made. Often when a subsequent decision must be based on earlier action, there is no real agreement on what had been decided. The problems which this kind of situation can cause are obvious.

7. Individual responsibility and group responsibility matters are essentially the same thing. FALSE.

Individual responsibility and group responsibility are part of the same general responsibility and accountability issue, but they are not the "same". It is possible for a number of individuals within a group to accept accountability and responsibility while others do not and while they are doing everything they can to uphold a decision, they often get the feeling that they are being undermined by others on the staff who do not carry out the same action. Decision making usually requires some sort of "monitoring" system to see that the game is played essentially the same way by all members on the team. If one member plays the game by the agreed rules and another member decides he will make his own rules, this can quickly lead to the internalized position that "no one really cares, so why should I support any decision?" A procedure for disagreeing with decisions and for giving additional consideration to decisions must be provided in the decision making model, but an attitude of trust for carrying out decisions must prevail if shared decision making is to become a reality.

8. While most teachers believe greater responsibility for decisions is accepted when they participate in decision making, administrators tend to have reservations about teachers, being willing to accept necessary responsibility and accountability associated with shared decision making. TRUE.

Ther is general belief by most teachers that since many are now involved in shared decision making, they are accepting more and more responsibility and accountability for their actions. At the same time, many administrators believe that while teachers are involved in shared decision making, teachers do not, in fact, accept appropriate accountability and responsibility for their actions. Some of this feeling, undoubtedly, comes about when other members on the staff who are displeased with decisions made by the group refer their problems and concerns to the administrator rather than to the decision making group. There is a tendency on the part of some teachers to circumvent the system, going directly to the administrator. When everything is said and done, it is usually the principal who must accept the responsibility for the decision as he is the one to whom the Board, the Superintendent and dissatisfied teachers, parents and/or children refer. Details for working out greater responsibility and accountability need considerable and serious attention.

9. Most teachers believe there is little possibility for "real" staff involvement without decision making power. TRUE.

Most teachers believe that "real" involvement is impossible without some "power" in the decision making process. Education has been very similar to the Army in many instances; historically, many teachers found themselves in a position where someone else would make a decision and then they, the teachers, would be expected to simply carry it out without any questions being asked or opinions expressed, no matter how relevant or constructive. Generally, decisions were made by the Board of Education, the Superintendent, principals and other administrators. In some cases, moreover, important decisions were made by state legislators, the U. S. Office of Education and the professional associations. Perhaps because most decisions have been made by external individuals and/or groups, teachers have never really been in a position for involvement and have not, as a result, effectively learned how to analyze problems, discuss alternatives for resolving such problems, deciding from specific action alternatives, and taking necessary and appropriate action. Most behavioral scientists believe this is a "learned" response rather than an innate characteristic of people.

10. Which of the following believe there is little possibility for "real" staff involvement without decision making? "C"

A. Lack of understanding about the process of shared decision making.
B. Members of decision making groups are sometimes not "strong" enough to resist less well informed faculty pressures.
C. A specific form for review of decisions made is available and used.
D. Lack of trust. Many things remain unsaid only to appear later through someone's failure to fulfill an obligation to a group decision.

As far as the authors of this package have been able to determine, a specific form for either individual or group responsibility very seldom has been designed and/or implemented for the purpose of carrying out the responsibilities associated with shared decision making. To our knowledge, only a few schools in the United States are actually using a planned review procedure and/or have incorporated an assessment instrument for monitoring consequences of decisions. This small sample is too few upon which to base conclusions, but it is, to our knowledge, the best information available at this time. Because too few schools have even designed or utilized such a system, such systems are not mentioned as frequent problems associated with shared decision making. However, the repercussions of not having a system are often either directly or indirectly cited as problems or frustrations encountered with the implementation of shared decision making.

ACCOUNTABILITY
AND
RESPONSIBILITY

A TRAINING GUIDE - Participants

Rodger E. Cryer
Project Director

Primary Consultants
James L. Olivero, Ed.D.
Hollis H. Moore, Ph.D.
Wendy Portnuff

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INTRODUCTION

Participants Instructions

As can be noted from the Areas of Concern Chart on Shared Decision Making, the "accountability for decisions" element is separate from the "assessing decision making effectiveness and efficiency." For the former term, i.e., "accountability," an attempt is made to determine if people involved in carrying out a decision do in fact implement and support the decision. In evaluating the effectiveness and efficiency of shared decision making, the attempt is to determine the relationships (if any) between shared decision making approaches and the results or organizational outputs of the school. Those interested in considering further the concepts differentiating between "accountability" and "evaluation", as used in these training modules, are encouraged to review other study materials included or referred to in the full training package. For example, the technical discussion paper entitled Organizational Output would be especially relevant.

In the context of shared decision making, accountability primarily has to do with implementing a decision that has been made. Relevant questions include the following:

1. Was the decision carried out?
2. Does the decision become a mode of operation for the people concerned?
3. Was a decision made and then ignored?

4. Was the decision supported by both those who made the decision as well as others who were affected by it?

Apparently several people in educational institutions have initiated efforts to establish shared decision making as a means for identifying and resolving problems. These people have worked hard to set up elaborate schemes for obtaining organizational representation, to learn about decision making techniques, and to establish systematic means for communicating the results of their decisions to appropriate audiences. For several reasons, though, those who are expected to carry out the decisions may often ignore or half-heartedly support many decisions through their own individual actions. Are there effective ways of reducing this tendency that occurs in all work settings to some degree?

The authors suggest at least two perspectives to the accountability issue exist. The first is the responsibility a decision making group has for appropriately gathering the necessary data along with the willingness of the group to engage in dialogue aimed at making responsible decisions. The second perspective focuses on the acceptance of responsibility for carrying out the decisions. This responsibility requires commitment from many people, including teachers, students, and the administrators. While the authors recognize these two decision making perspectives, this training package addresses only the latter issue, i.e., carrying out decisions made. Theoretically, at least, other training packages are available for arriving at solutions to problems raised relative to the gathering and discussion of pertinent decision data. *

To deal with this issue of "follow-through" behavior, there appear to be three areas requiring our attention. These are:

1. The responsibility of each individual to carry out his actions in such a way as to support decisions;
2. The responsibility of a group as a whole to support their decisions; and
3. The responsibility of a decision making group to review its decision at an appropriate time following the decision, for changing circumstances and new information often require reconsideration of decisions made, possibly leading to new decisions.

The authors feel attention must be given to these issues. However, strategies for moving from the "nned to have support" to "actual demonstration of support" is less clear. The third issue, though, may be even less well recognized or understood.

To better comprehend this third issue, one may refer to the Decision Making Models Module contained in the full training package. Many decision making models do not have an adequate review procedure for considering the actual results, both anticipated and unanticipated, of a given decision after it has been reached and implemented. Empirical

* Additional information is available from: Dr. Raymond G. Melton, Director, National Cluster Coordination Center, 2418 Hatton Street, Sarasota, Florida 33577

evidence and the orientation of the authors suggest that this is unfortunate and such an omission may ultimately lead to serious problems. Further amplification of this point is important.

Generally, members of shared decision making groups have had little past experience participating in groups where substantive shared decision making was genuinely possible, particularly where those decisions could potentially extend significant influence beyond the group making the decision. Initially, this feeling can cause the decision making group to retreat to more comfortable and less important issues. In this way the majority of time can come to be invested in non-controversial "safe" matters. Frequently, indeed, the decision making group builds in an intervention safeguard calling for the principal to "veto" any decision which may be unpopular with other members of the staff. This type of activity possibly demonstrates a level of group anxiety, and, perhaps, a feeling of insecurity with new-found "power." Decision making is, after all, controlling power, at least to some extent.

As the group gains confidence, there is a tendency to take on more serious matters. Often these matters reflect concerns about hiring practices, dismissal concerns, evaluation of staff, etc. The group usually is able to make decisions relative to these matters. It is important to keep in mind that history supports the position that decisions cannot be made with the notion that the "ultimate truth" will hold eternally. That is, in many school districts, policies and

and procedures can become fixed only to find later that some of the factors which required the action in the first place had changed and the early decision should then be changed. Once a decision is reached, however, there seems to be a frequent tendency to "set it in concrete," and it tends to remain almost unchangeable.

New information, however, often necessitates a new revised decision. This is the primary reason to build in a review mechanism as part of an accountability system. Incidentally, an additional reason for a review mechanism is to encourage people in schools to try alternative, often untried approaches which can be less threatening if there is consensus to reconsider the decision at some date in the future. Groups should make a decision to try something new knowing that--not too far down the path--there will be an opportunity and responsibility to analyze the results of the decision with the possibility of continuing, changing or rescinding the decision. Thus, the review technique is important from both a psychological point of view and from an accountability perspective.

Postscript

This workshop consists of specific activities in which your full participation is critical. The authors hope that you will find the suggested experiences professionally rewarding and personally interesting.

The balance of this Guide contains some of the specific materials which you will be helped to use during the next few hours. You are encouraged to creatively respond to the materials in an active, constructive manner so that your participation can lead to improvements in the materials.

PERFORMANCE OBJECTIVES

The following four statements should be carefully examined by participants and workshop leaders. They constitute the central functions intended for the workshop and thus you may wish to refer to the objectives from time to time throughout the workshop experience.

This training module has four specific objectives:

1. Given the need to establish individual and group accountability and responsibility following a decision, the participants will become aware of relevant research and information on this topic.

   Evidence: Participants will demonstrate their awareness and knowledge of such information by completing a post-test based on the authors interpretation of literature, research studies, and field interviews from schools attempting to improve shared decision making practices. Participants will answer 9 out of the 10 questions correctly.

2. Given the need to establish individual accountability and responsibility following a decision, each participant will be able to complete a planned design for upholding decisions.

   Evidence: Participants will be able to prepare an approach or system for improving follow through on decisions made. Each participant will prepare one planned format before terminating the training session, and the group will attempt to arrive at consensus on an approach to "try out." At least, a group commitment to pursue this important subject should be obtained.

3. Given the need to establish group accountability and responsibility following a decision, a system for obtaining group support will be studied and learned.

   Evidence: The group will be able to initiate a prepared system for group action to uphold the results of a decision. The group will attempt to complete one planned format before terminating the training session to achieve a reasonable "action plan."

4. Given the need to establish a workable plan for both individual and group responsibility following a decision, specific plans are to be generated by the participants for arrival at group consensus and commitment.

   Evidence: Two plans will emerge from the efforts of the group. Acceptable plans will be incorporated into the ongoing shared decision making procedures at the school.

DIAGNOSTIC TEST

Directions: Select the most appropriate answer and circle your choice. When the test is completed score the test using the answer sheet on the back of the test.

1. Experience has shown that to date, most schools involved in shared decision making have had their staffs involved in specific training to learn about sharing responsibility and accountability. T F

2. Too often, educators associate "accountability" simply with putting minutes of meetings in teachers' mailboxes. T F

3. Shared decision making bodies in schools seem to both want and expect to have full responsibility for their decisions. T F

4. "Accountability" can be most easily achieved when decision making group bases its actions on reasonably completed, accurate, and relevant data. T F

5. Of schools attempting to implement shared decision making, most have successfully utilized a review process following the actual trial of an important decision. T F

6. Getting people in the "outgroup" to accept decisions made by a representative group of decision makers may be closely related to the quality of communications in a school. T F

7. Individual responsibility and group responsibility matters are essentially the same thing. T F

8. While most teachers believe greater responsiblity for decisions is accepted when they participate in decision making, administrators tend to have reservations about teachers being willing to accept necessary responsibility and accountability associated with shared decision making. T F

9. Most teachers believe there is little possibility for "real" staff involvement without decision making power. T F

10. Which of the following has not been expressed as a frequent problem in shared decision making?

    A. Lack of understanding about the process of shared decision making.

    B. Members of decision making groups are sometimes not "strong" enough to resist less well informed faculty pressures.

    C. A specific form for review of decisions made is available and used.

    D. Lack of trust. Many things remain unsaid only to appear later through someone's failure to fulfill an obligation to a group decision.

ANSWERS TO DIAGNOSTIC TEST

1. False
2. True
3. False
4. True
5. False
6. True
7. False
8. True
9. True
10. "C"

ACCOUNTABILITY INSTRUMENT
(COMPLETED)

Part I: Decision

The decision making group has determined that seven half-days for self-renewal will be established for the 1972-73 school year. Two of the activities of the self-renewal effort will be determined by the decision making group and a special ad hoc committee (appointed by the decision making group) will determine by surveying other staff members the remaining workshop topics.

Part II: Discussion

The Board of Education has established seven half-days for self-renewal and in service during the 1972-73 school year and three days have been placed on the official school district calendar. Because of the need to have continued work on shared decision making activities, two days have been set aside to continue staff training. Clearly there are other staff needs that can be met via the self-renewal days and the decision making group is soliciting staff members to participate on an ad hoc committee to determine what would be appropriate for other training sessions.

Part III: Recommendation(s) for Action

1. Volunteer to serve on the ad hoc committee to consider alternative self-renewal days.

2. Carefully analyze personal needs for self-renewal recommendations.

3. Participate in the self-renewal days.

Part IV: Self-Commitment

(This section should be completed by the staff member and turned in to the mail box reserved for the chairperson of the decision making group.

____________________ (date)

____________________ (signature of individual)

ACCOUNTABILITY INSTRUMENT
(BLANK)

Part I: Decision

Part II: Discussion

Part III: Recommendation(s) for Action

detach here

- -

Part IV: Self-Commitment (This section should be completed by the staff member and turned in to the mail box reserved for the chairperson of the decision making group.)

______________________ (date)

______________________ (signature of individual)

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

AREAS OF CONCERN

	Resources Available	Practitioner's Questions A	Responses to Questions from Practitioners B	Organizational Development Materials and Programs C	Human Resources D
1	RATIONALE FOR SHARED DECISION MAKING PROS & CONS				
2	PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS & INSTITUTIONAL VALUES				
3	DECISION MAKING MODELS				
4	LOCATION OF AND APPROPRIATENESS OF DECISION MAKING RESPONSIBILITY (POWER)				
5	PROBLEM SOLVING & DECISION MAKING PROCESSES				
6	COMMUNICATION SYSTEMS				
7	ACCOUNTABILITY FOR DECISIONS				
8	ASSESSING DECISION MAKING EFFECTIVENESS & EFFICIENCY				

ORGANIZATIONAL OUTPUT:

A Technical Discussion Paper

Mr. Rodger E. Cryer
Project Director
Shared Decision Making Study

Dr. James L. Olivero
Prime Consultant

Dr. Hollis H. Moore
Project Consultant

Dr. Brian Jones
Consultant
American Institute for Research

Dr. Virgil S. Hollis
Superintendent
Marin County Schools

INTRODUCTION

Final agreement on the organizational output for any social agency is difficult if not impossible to achieve. The need for continuing open dialogue among professionals in such fields remains important, however, if only to reiterate the variety of opinions and ideas encompassed by those dedicated to such service. "Agreeing to disagree" may characterize a reasonable atmosphere for those who also are well aware of and committed to the very real need to "get things done."

Evaluation of organizational output is certainly a complex and uncertain task. Since variability in social output is the reality due to individual differences among human beings, simple assessment techniques are not acceptable. This paper, therefore, represents a discussion to shed some light on the difficulties and complexities of these issues. While the paper tends to pose more questions than definitive answers, the implication is that further discussion, research and serious thought are needed. Where solutions are proposed, it should be remembered that they are tentative and relatively untested, but represent a combination of the various inputs of the authors.

Organizational Output under Shared Decision Making Conditions

Implementing shared decision making generally rests on a number of major assumptions. Among these, it is usually assumed that the people within the organization as well as the organization as a whole become more effective and efficient as a result of shared decision making. The term "effective" has to do with the qualitative aspects of the substantive decisions made by those who are in the position to make decisions. The term "efficient" has to do with the relative degree of resources invested to arrive at decisions. That is, there are certain "costs" which must be taken into account when shared decision making is practiced; these costs may include additional personnel, or the amount of time invested in the decision making process -- to mention a few factors. Similar dimensions are also relative to other decision making approaches, and to arrive at evaluative judgments regarding shared decision making, comparative assessments must be made.

Those who attempt to implement or use shared decision making often raise serious questions about the effectiveness and efficiency of their procedures. Unfortunately, the literature on this topic is quite barren. In fact, after reviewing some forty-five books on the topic of organizational development, and after reviewing many of the articles on decision making that are available through the ERIC System, the writers could not find too many useful works dealing specifically with the issues of assessing effectiveness and efficiency, i.e., evaluation.

Several questions must be addressed if progress is to be made in improving evaluation of these important dimensions. Possible questions include:

How much time must be invested in group maintenance procedures? How does one determine if the shared decision making approaches are worth the "price"? How does one analyze the weak links in the decision making model? How efficient is shared decision making compared to other decision making approaches?

We believe tentative answers to the preceding questions can be formulated to be potentially useful -- even if little has yet been done to assemble systematically all the necessary data. To get at answers to the questions, one might begin by making some hypotheses or assumptions about shared decision making and then analyzing the various elements having some bearing on the assumptions, i.e., testing their validity and reliability. For example, the authors have proposed the following assumptions or hypotheses:

1) Individuals involved in shared decision making will learn and practice greater skills of interpersonal communication.

2) Members within the organization (teachers, students, administrators) will have a more positive attitude about the organization, and others (parents) outside the organization will support the organization to a greater extent.

3) Individuals (students) affected by the organization will improve their achievement on recognized criteria.

4) Organizations with shared decision making will have more supportive products that represent a responsible approach to such matters as teaching and learning, communication, shared decision making, and accountability.

Admittedly, each of these assumptions is open to serious and rigorous examination and may or may not be the direct products of changes in decision making patterns.

The authors have grouped these preceding assumptions under the general heading of "organizational output." In summary, the major concepts in these assumptions are:

I. Skills
  a. Communication Skills
  b. Problem Solving Skills

II. Attitudes

III. Achievement

IV. Functional Products

For useful evaluation, one must determine what evidence will be acceptable as verification that the assumptions or hypotheses are reasonably true or not. While this matter remains to be examined in considerable depth, the authors offer the following statements for initial thought and consideration:

I. New Skills

a. Communication Skills:

From the literature it appears that a number of skills must be learned if individuals within a small group are to communicate effectively with each other. For decisions to be made in a relatively rational manner, open communication must be possible. At the very least, participants should be able to demonstrate skills of: 1) listening, 2) paraphrasing, 3) summarizing, and 4) clarifying. These skills, for the most part, are learned -- and can be practiced. Are they being properly utilized in your school?

b. Problem Solving Skills:

Another set of skills is related to problem solving. That is, those within decision making groups should be aware of and practice, where appropriate, problem solving approaches such as:

1) Brainstorming

2) Force Field Analysis

3) Delphi Techniques

4) Problem Analysis and Closure Techniques

II Attitudes

The literature suggests that those in decision making groups should ideally possess a positive outlook about such matters as:

1) Themselves

2) Others "in" their decision making group

3) Others "outside" their decision making group

4) The organization, i.e., school.

In addition, those "outside" the group should have a reasonably positive attitude about those who are viewed as decision makers. To have this attitude one assumes that:

1) The decision makers, in fact, fairly represent those in the "out-group."

2) The decision makers effectively communicate results of decisions to the "out-group."

3) The decision makers and the "out-group" take on the responsibility and the accountability for the decisions which are made and transmitted.

Finally, an organization with a healthy climate is reflected by the attitudes of people within the organization who share commonly agreed upon goals and objectives, and who reasonably agree with the focus and direction of the organization.

III. Achievement:

This term can relate to teacher accomplishments, but it is used here as it primarily relates to students. Assuming that grade-level achievement for children is a desired end (and there is some reason to question this assumption), schools which practice shared decision making may see a rise in student achievement to more closely approximate grade-level expectancies. However, the authors suggest that when schools move toward a performance-based curricula, it may be more sensible to assess student achievement in terms of improvement on self-paced performance criteria than on the standardized test scores. The linkage between student achievement and shared decision making may not be immediately apparent, but this factor needs to be seriously analyzed.

IV Functional Products

Finally, schools that are involved in shared decision making should have a variety of functional products describing procedures and processes to support the decision making system. These products should be available in written form; if questioned, individuals who are included in the decision making group and those external to the group should be able to correctly and consistently explain the processes and procedures mentioned in the printed documents. Products should include some or all of the following:

1) Philosophy of the school.
2) Activities within the school which support the philosophy.
3) Growth objectives for members of the school.
4) A model of the decision making procedures and descriptive information about the process.
5) Evidence of decisions made by the decision making group.

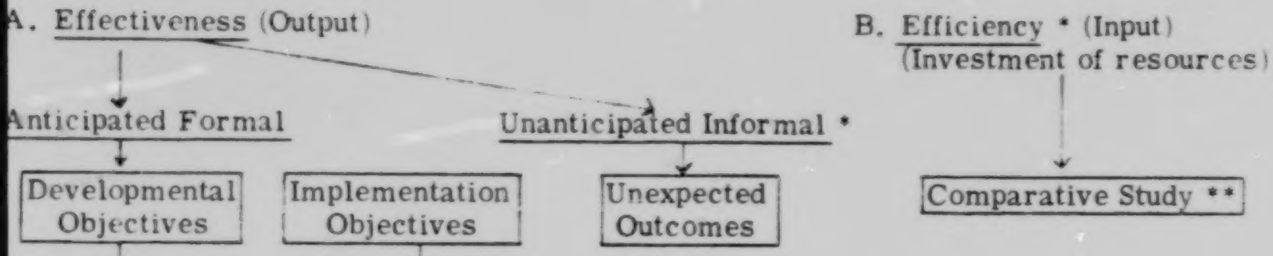
It should be noted that each of the areas delineated above may not be immediately amenable to evaluation in terms of cost-effectiveness analysis. Thus, although the areas represent major concepts associated with organizational output and are derived from the set of four assumptions listed by the authors, the assumptions may be elusive and difficult to quantify in assessment procedures.

However, some possibilities for assessment may be feasible if the above listed assumptions are agreed upon. These possibilities include taking at least two additional steps. The first step has to do with selecting or constructing the instrumentation in order to gather the appropriate data. The second step involves the implementation of special data collecting instruments and analysis of the resulting data.

To begin to deal with these onerous problems, Dr. Brian Jones has prepared a visual model to illustrate how an evaluation of effectiveness and efficiency might be accomplished. The visual model is based on his interpretations of earlier paragraphs in this document. In addition, he has expanded some items in keeping with his professional background and expertise, thus providing some much-needed elaboration and hopeful clarification on many of the ideas contained in this decision paper. This chart appears on the following page.

CHART I

CONCEPTUAL MODEL FOR EVALUATION


A. Effectiveness (Output)
B. Efficiency * (Input)
(Investment of resources)
Anticipated Formal
Unanticipated Informal *
Developmental Objectives
Implementation Objectives
Unexpected Outcomes
Comparative Study **

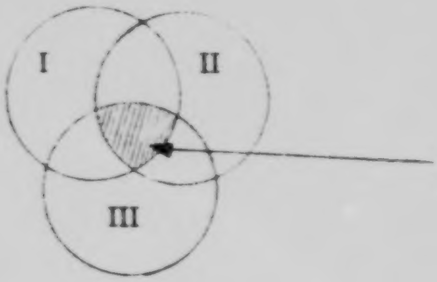
1. Skills
   a. Acquisition
   b. Performance
2. Attitudes
3. Achievement
4. Products

1. Process
2. Procedure

1. Cost-benefit
2. Ratios that can be compared
3. Etc.

* May be premature to gather data on these criteria at this time

**



Compare on overlapping (common) objectives

I. $0_1 - x_I - 0_2$

II. $0_1 - x_{II} - 0_2$

III. $0_1 - x_{III} - 0_2$

Special note should be given to the chart, particularly to those portions indicated by the single or double asterisks. Those variables which are designated by a single asterisk may represent more difficult areas more remote from effective analysis considering the current "state-of-the-art" in field evaluation; that is, the topics of efficiency and effectiveness in schools are so complex that gathering of data or selecting interrelated variables at this time could be most difficult and possibly premature. Some developmental objectives fall into this arena and all implementation objectives are probably best included in this arena.

Variables indicated by double asterisks in the chart have to do with a comparative study on the one-hand and with thoughts of transferability on the other. Clearly, too little is known at this time to make more than a cursory exploration into this field.

However, assuming that skills, attitudes, achievement and functional products are desirable organizational outputs, it is not too soon to gather interpretative data on these variables. The scope of such an undertaking clearly exceeds the current resources allocated to the Marin County EPDA Study of Shared Decision Making. Therefore, this response has been intended to focus upon conceptually advancing the description of an evaluation model or organizational output while briefly treating each of the model elements without attempting to fully field test and implement each element. A multi-dimensional analysis of each specific mechanism within the proposed model is needed and desirable.

For the purposes of this effort, the authors recommend a search of available and hopefully validated instruments which correlate as precisely as possible with as many of the output variables as feasible and appropriate and to field test and analyze the results of such evaluation efforts.

Analysis and interpretation of the results of data gathered through field tests should serve as indicators for either:

A) further conceptualization of the problem.

B) further delineation of the scope of field test activities.

C) abandonment or modification of the model for evaluating organizational output.

There is much to do and what the authors propose is admittedly only a beginning. The organizational complexities are considerable, but need to be approached systematically and methodically to shed important light on this critical dimension of organizational analysis.

BIBLIOGRAPHY ON SHARED DECISION MAKING

Mr. Rodger E. Cryer
Project Director

Editorial Board

James Olivero, Ed.D. - Consultant
Hollis Moore, Ph.D. - Project Monitor
Ms. Wendy Portnuff - Research Assistant
Mrs. Laura Kauer - Staff Assistant

Dr. Virgil S. Hollis
Superintendent
Marin County Schools

A BIBLIOGRAPHY ON SHARED DECISION MAKING

Introduction

In studying the issues which occur in shared decision making, resource materials from a wide variety of disciplines must be included--writings in psychology, sociology, anthropology, business management, law, economics and education can yield relevant information. Given the complexity of decision making issues and the vast scope of the materials associated with the topic, claims to comprehensiveness in bibliographic work require adequate descriptive limitations.

In compiling this bibliography, we have attempted to conduct an initial search of basic printed sources. Through use of the ERIC system, previously assembled bibliographic collections in related fields and the suggestions of professional practitioners, we have begun to catalogue the resources of most interest.

Annotations, primarily assembled by ERIC System reviewers are included, together with some annotations prepared by our staff. Unannotated items are not to be considered of less importance than items with annotation.

We have attempted to direct users to those sources which we feel are critical to the basic understanding of decision making by placing two asterisks (**) by the item. Those items with one asterisk (*) denote recommended works and the triple asterisk symbol (***) indicates that the entry is a bibliographic work.

R. E. C.
Marin County
June 1973

A BIBLIOGRAPHY FOR SHARED DECISION MAKING
WITH SELECTED ANNOTATIONS

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2. Alutto, Joseph A. and James A. Belasco. "A Typology for Participation in Organizational Decision Making." Administrative Science Quarterly; 17; 1; pp 117-125, March 1972.

3. Alutto, Joseph A. and James A. Belasco. Decisional Participation Among Teaching Personnel and Perceptions of Administrative Influence. March 1970. 17 pages. Paper presented for the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Minneapolis, March 1970.

   If previously discovered influence-participation relationships are applicable to operating school systems it should mean that by allowing and fostering increased decisional participation by teaching personnel, administrative officials should discover an increase in their relative influence. A study explored two questions: Among teachers is there an identifiable relationship between extent of decisional participation and the perceived or preferred relative influence of administrative officials? Is any identifiable participation-influence relationship differentially distributed among the general teaching population? Relevant questionnaire data was solicited from teachers in two western New York school districts, one rural and one urban, with responses from 60 percent and 75 percent respectively. Variables included six demographic characteristics and commitment to school system. Findings resulting from correlational analyses: A negative relationship exists generally between the extent of decisional participation by teachers and the degree of perceived and preferred administrative influence. However, little relationship exists between those factors among unmarried male secondary teachers with 1-3 years service and low organizational commitment. Most consistent negative participation-influence relationships were found among married female elementary teachers with 4-10 years seniority and medium organizational commitment.

*4. Argyris, Chris. "Interpersonal Barriers to Decision-making." *Harvard Business Review*, March/April, 1966, vol. 44, no. 2, pp 84-98

5. __________ *Intervention Theory and Method, A Behavioral Science View*, Menlo Park, California, Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1970.

6. Armstrong, Ronald. *Student Involvement. Analysis and Bibliography Series, No. 14.* Oregon University, Eugene, Oregon, 15 pages.

Intended primarily for educational administrators, this review presents an analysis of the literature concerning student participation in educational decision making. The educational and legal ramifications of student involvement in several decision making spheres, such as school board and committee membership, student government, extracurricular activities, student publications, and curriculum issues, are discussed. Some suggestions are given to administrators for channeling student energies into a constructive improvement of the educational program. A 54-item bibliography of related literature is also included.

7. Barzun, Jacques. *Teacher in America*. Boston: Little, Brown, 1971. 321 pages.

8. __________ et al. *Papers on Educational Reform: Volume II.* La Salle, Illinois: Open Court Publishing Co., 1971. 171 pages.

Ten essays by critics of several tendencies, including the doctrinaire reformist, in U. S. education.

9. Bay, Virgil B. "Managing Human Resources in the Seventies", *Personnel Administration*, XXXIII (January-February 1970), pp 5-7, 23-28.

A whole new range of challenges in both the economic and social expectations of society may not be successfully met unless those responsible for the management of human resources assume a greater level of responsibility in the decision-making process of the organization.

10. Belasco, James A. and Joseph A. Alutto. "Decisional Participation and Teacher Satisfaction." *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 8; 1; pp 44-58, W 1972.

Examines the relationship between levels of satisfaction experienced by teachers and the status of their decisional participation.

11. Bennis, Warren. "Beyond Bureaucracy." *Transactions*, July-August, 1965.

12. __________ "Theory and Method in Applying Behavioral Science to Planned Organizational Change." *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, I (1964), pp 337-360.

The author surveys the ways in which industrial organizations traditionally attempt to apply knowledge. His classification is as follows: (1) exposition and propagation, (2) elite corps programs, (3) human relations training, (4) staff programs, (5) scholarly consultation, (6) circulation of ideas to the elite, (7) developmental research, and (8) action research. He discusses each of these approaches in terms of four biases: (1) rationalistic bias, (2) technocratic bias, (3) individualistic bias, and (4) insight bias.

13. Berkowitz, Leonard. "Personality & Group Position," *Sociometry*, December, 1965, vol. 18, pp 210-222

14. __________ "Sharing Leadership in Small, Decision Making Groups," *Journal of Abnormal & Social Psychology*, 1953, pp 231-238.

**15. Blau, Peter M. *Bureaucracy in Modern Society*, University of Chicago, Random House, New York, 1964.

**16. ________ and W. Richard Scott, *Formal Organizations*, Chandler Publishing Co., San Francisco, California, 1962.

*17. Blumberg, Arthur. *Developing Teacher Decision Making Through Structural Interventions*. 14 pages. Paper presented at the annual meeting of American Educational Research Association, Los Angeles, California, February 1969.

A number of problems are encountered in "structural interventions" (direct changes introduced into the decisionmaking structure of a school) designed to create a mechanism through which teachers can exercise power over matters, internal to the school, that require decision and to provide a means through which the teachers of a school can potentially influence educational policy decisions in the community at large. The decisionmaking model we have been using emphasizes the leadership role of the principal in creating a representative body of teachers who meet, discuss problems, and make decisions on nearly all matters of school operation over which he previously had control. Central among the problems encountered are (1) the hierarchical, bureaucratic organization of schools and school systems, (2) the fact that changing school structure does not necessarily improve decisionmaking, (3) the nature of the trust relationship between teachers and principals, (4) the teachers' lack of collaborative problemsolving skills, particularly in working with peers, (5) the time required to make a new structure work, (6) the difficulty of insuring that the new decisionmaking body is indeed representative while trying to have it act in the best interests of the total school. Both the principal and his decisionmakers need to be aware of potential organizational fall-out that requires attention to interpersonal and group processes.

*18. ________ and Richard A. Schmuck. "Barriers to Training in Organization Development for Schools." *Educational Technology*, in press.

19. ________ and others. "The Elementary School Cabinet: Report of an Experience in Participative Decision-Making." Educational Administration Quarterly: 5; 3; pp 39-52, Autumn 1969.

20. Bogue, E. G. "The Context of Organizational Behavior: A Conceptual Synthesis for the Educational Administrator". Administering Human Resources, compiled and edited by Francis M. Trusty, McCutchan Publishing Company, 1971, pp 296-313.

21. Boyan, Norman J. "The Emergent Role of the Teacher in the Authority Structure of the School", in Organizations and Human Behavior, McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 1969.

22. Boyce, Byrl N. and others. "Games Learners Will Play". Futurist; 5; 1; 22 pages, February 1971.

Clark Abt's book "Serious Games" describes how games can enable children (and adults) to learn the abstract concepts that are required to deal with a world that is becoming increasingly complex. His book is here reviewed by three members of the University of Connecticut's Center for Real Estate and Urban Economics Studies.

23. Bremer, John and Michael Von Moschzisker. The School without Walls: Philadelphia's Parkway Program. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1971. 295 pages.

Detailed description, with testimonies by students and instructors, of an experimental, innovative high school.

24. Bridges, Edwin M. "A Model for Shared Decision Making in the School Principalship". Central Midwestern Regional Educational Lab., St. Ann, Mo. 16 pages. Or see: Educational Administration Quarterly, III, No. 1 (Winter 1967), 51.

Research suggests that teacher participation in decision making has desirable consequences. When the principal involves teachers in making decisions which are located in their zone of indifference, participation is less effective. A teacher is interested in participating if the decision is relevant to him and if he is capable of contributing to the decision. When the principal has decided at what phase in the decisionmaking process teachers will be included and what their role will be, he must determine the constitutional arrangement of the group (participant-determining, parliamentarian, or democratic-centralist). Decisions appropriate for participant-determining hold high relevance to the teachers. When teachers' interests are conflicting, the parliamentarian style is most appropriate for achieving consensus, and when both teachers' views and the principal's final judgment are required, the democratic-centralist style is most feasible. In all these structures, the principal must facilitate the group effort in order to maintain the necessary leadership position.

25. ________ "Subjective and Objective Aspects of Demands for Involvement", Administrator's Notebook, February 1969.

26. ________ "Teacher Participation in Decision Making," XII, The Administrators Notebook, May 1964.

27. Briner, Conrad. "Administrators and Accountability", Emerging Patterns of Administrative Accountability, compiled and edited by Lesley H. Browder, Jr., McCutchan Publishing Company, Berkeley, 1971, pp 74-94.

28. Brissey, F. L., F. R. Fosmire and R. J. Hills. Problems, Problem-Solving and Human Communication: A Laboratory Approach to Training in Interpersonal Communication. Arlington, Va.: The Directorate of Information Sciences of the Air Force Office of Scientific Research, February, 1969.

Part I of this report presents a conceptual treatment of communication in which the human being is viewed as a goal-attainment system. Signs and representatives (symbols) are treated both as determinants and results of problem-solving behavior. The goal attainment problem is defined as a discrepancy between the current state of the system and a specified goal state. Detecting and manimizing the discrepancy requires solutions for designative, prescriptive, and appraisive subproblems. When semiotic behavior of another system, the systems are semiotically coupled, or interdependent. Several forms of the communicative relationship are outlined. Part II presents an approach to communication training referred to as Task-Directed Learning (TDL). Participants formulate and critically examine specimens of their own interpersonal communication in relation to selected measures of effectiveness in solving laboratory problems and related materials (Vocom Problems) are included. Part III summarizes objective performance data (time, error and recall) for selected Vocom problems and gives some informal suggestions for research in interpersonal communication.

***29. Browder, Lesley H., Jr., Ed. Emerging Patterns of Administrative Accountability, McCutchan Publishing Company, Berkeley, 1971. (See #27, 44, 46, 125, 190

30. Brown, P. S. E. "Teacher Participation in Decision-Making." School Progress; 40; 4; pp 38-39, May 1971.

31. Burke, W. W. and H. Hornstein (eds.). The Social Psychology of Organization Development. Washington, D.C.: NTL Learning Resources Corporation, in preparation.

32. Burr, Donald F. Simu-School: A Tool and Process for Educational Planning. Final Report." American Inst. of Architects, Washington, D.C.; Technomics, Inc., Chicago, Ill.

The greatest challenge facing education today is the need to plan adequately for the future. Effective educational planning can work only if all elements of the community are involved in the decisionmaking process, the relevant factors and variables in the educational environment are considered, and the nature of the learning/teaching

process in education is understood. As proposed, SIMU-SCHOOL would use simulation techniques to recreate the educational planning process. By utilizing a management information system as an educational tool, SIMU-SCHOOL would create a time-compressed simulation of a series of planning problems. Using this simulation technique, educational and community planners could become involved and would experience the results of their decisions within a few days instead of several years.

33. California Association of School Administrators. Student Participation in Decision Making. 1971, 7 pages.

*34. Campbell, Roald F. Introduction to Educational Administration. Boston, Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1966.

***35. Carver, Fred D. and Thomas J. Sergiovanni (editors), Organizations and Human Behavior, McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 1969.

*36. Charters, W. W. Jr., et al. Perspectives in Educational Administration and the Behavioral Sciences, Center for the Advanced Study of Educational Administration, University of Oregon, Eugene, Oregon.

37. Chase, Francis S. "The Teacher and Policy Making," I, the Administrators Notebook, May 1952, the Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago.

38. Chesler, Mark A. "Shared Power and Student Decision Making. Educational Leadership; 28; 2; pp 9-14, October 1970.

39. Clark, Walter E. Community Power and Decision-Making: A Selective Bibliography. Council of Planning Librarians, Post Office Box 229, Monticello, Illinois, 28 pages.

This bibliography is arranged to correspond roughly with three conceptual and one general state through which community power and decision have passed during the past two decades. The three conceptual stages concern: (1) the power and decision-making structure of the isolated, and for the most part, small community; (2) comparative studies of community power and decision-making; the comparisons may be of methodologies or of the differences in the communities in terms of their decision-making arrangements; (3) the metropolitan community and its decisional structure, or the lack of it. The fourth stage, a general category, includes relevant works for the most part theoretical, which do not fit into the three conceptual stages but are, in some cases, attempts to bridge the gaps existing between those stages.

40. Clear, Delbert K. "Decentralization: Issues and Comments." Clearing House; 44; 5; pp 259-267. January 1970.

Urban school systems must reorganize to allow greater community involvement in the power structure of education. At the same time, local communities must realize that participation in the decision-making process makes them responsible for the results of their decisions.

41. Clifford, Margaret M. Decision-Making Rationale for Educational Testing. Iowa University, Iowa City, Iowa, 13 pages.

Decision-making Rationale for Educational Testing (DRET) is a proposal intended to reduce the misuse of achievement tests. It assumes (1) measurement is intended to facilitate decision-making, (2) the choice of an instrument, the identification of examinees and the use of test results is determined by the decision for which the measurement is to be taken, and (3) effective educational measurement is a function of the nature of the decision, the examinee's option to measure, and his expectation of the measurement. DRET specifies that a decision issue must be clearly stated and validated before initiating measurement, and that measurement in excess of that which facilitates the decision is prohibited. This proposal gives the student a major role in determining measurement activities and might be summarized in the motto, "Test at Student Request."

42. Columbia University, New York, N.Y. Center for Research and Education in American Liberties. *Civic Education in a Crisis Age: An Alternative to Repression and Revolution.* 29 pages.

This report describes a 21-month research project, the overall goal of which was to develop behavioral objectives and guidelines for a civics curriculum for the 1970's. The project staff first set out to learn whether secondary school students were concerned with greater participation in institutional decision making, and to consider the implications of student responses to the project goal. Approximately 7,000 junior and senior high school students were given an open ended questionnaire that asked them to describe a dilemma in democracy with which they were personally acquainted. The principal findings of the survey were that a large majority of students feel they are regularly subjected to undemocratic decisions, and that most of these students perceive their schools as essentially undemocratic. Drawing on these results, the project drew up a Manual of Objectives and Guidelines for High School Civic Education. It focuses on democratic decision making as the heart of an appropriate civic education, and sets out ten objectives that define an operating code of democratic citizenship. The manual also provides guidelines that identify ideal points in the educational sequence at which civic competence should be stressed. (A copy of the questionnaire and lists of objectives and guidelines from the Manual are included in the report.)

43. Crockett, William J. "Team Building--One Approach to Organizational Development", *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, Vol. 6, No. 3, 1970, pp 291-306.

44. Cunningham, Luvern, L. "Trends and Issues in Participation", in *Emerging Patterns of Administrative Accountability*, edited by Leslie H. Browder, Jr., McCutchan Publishing Corp., 1971.

45. Cyert, R. M. and J. G. March. *A Behavioral Theory of the Firm.* Englewood Cliff, N. J., Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1963.

46. Cyphert, Frederick R. and Walter L. Gant. "The Delphi Technique: A Tool for Collecting Opinions in Teacher Education", Emerging Patterns of Administrative Accountability, compiled and edited by Lesley H. Browder, Jr., McCutchan Publishing Company, Berkeley, 1971, pp 184-194.

47. Davis, Gary A. "The Current Status of Research and Theory in Human Problem Solving." Madison, Wisconsin, Research and Development Center for Learning and Re-Education, 1966.

This paper summarizes problem-solving theories in three areas: traditional learning, cognitive-Gestalt approaches, and recent computer and mathematical models. In a broad overview of the area, recent empirical studies are categorized according to the type of behavior elicited by the particular problem-solving task. Covert trial-and-error behaviors are applied to the solution of anagram, "insight," water-jar, and arithmetic problems. Overt trial-and-error behavior is used to approach switch-light, classification, probability learning, and numerous miscellaneous tasks.

48. De Cecco, John Paul. Conviction, Choice, and Action: An Honorable and Practical Educational Psychology. Paper presented at the 55th Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New York, February 4, 1971. 11 pages.

Interviews with high school students have found the cause of much of the present apathy and rebellion to be the students' exclusion from decisionmaking in the daily operation of the school and classroom. Objections were also raised to the failure to enforce rules in a fair and consistent manner. Many of the "problems" such as racial conflict and drug misuse in the schools are often the students' last desperate response to an institution that forces them to do boring and meaningless things and in which they have no say. If future teachers are to be prevented from perpetuating today's disastrous teaching practices, college instructors of educational psychology must find new ways of including their students--who will be the future teachers--in decisions which govern their own preparation. This paper discusses two new ways of offering the educational psychology course; one at Teacher's College, Columbia University and one at San Francisco State. One format provided at least three choices: self-selected problem interest groups with an advanced graduate student; study groups working on the traditional subject matter; and independent study. The other format provided students choices of school and teachers with whom to work for one semester. Students made their own arrangements for this.

49. Delbecq, Andre L. and Fremont A. Shull. "Norms, a Feature of Symbolic Culture: A Major Linkage Between the Individual, Small Group, and Administrative Organization," in William Gore and J. W. Dyson (eds.), The Making of Decisions. Glencoe, Ill., The Free Press, 1964.

50. Derr, C. Brooklyn. "Surfacing and managing organizational power." OD Practitioner, no date, 4 (2), 1-4.

51. Deutsch, M. "A Theory of Cooperation and Competition," Human Relations, vol. 30, 1949, Univ. of Mich. Press, Ann Arbor, Mich.

52. Draves, David D. "Expand Freedom of Choice in Schools." School Management, 15; 9; pp 10-11, September 1971.

Proposes that schools offer alternatives in curriculum, methodology, environment, and administrative practices.

53. Dror, Yehezkel. Systems Analysis for Development Decisions: Applicability, Feasibility, Effectiveness and Efficiency. Santa Monica, Calif: The Rand Corporation, August, 1969.

Dror suggests that systems analysis is not adaptable to all levels of problems. He proposes a meta-analysis (an analysis of the causes where systems analysis is most effective). He presents a scheme showing the degrees of applicability or feasibility in using systems analysis in eight problem areas, one of which is education. In general, he concludes that systems analysis is more useful for low or medium-level decision-making or in suboptimizing cases of higher-level problems.

54. Edwards, Ward. *A Bibliography of Research on Behavioral Decision Processes to 1968.* Ann Arbor: Department of Psychology, University of Michigan, January, 1969.

This book contains 1393 items in the area of decision-making techniques in the behavioral area.

55. English, Joseph T. "Sensitivity Training: Promise and Performance," *American Journal of Psychiatry*, CXXVI (December, 1969), pp 874-876.

A proliferation of sensitivity training programs aimed at persons in educational, industrial, and community settings is currently being witnessed. Variations of sensitivity training programs have been established that purport to train community development leaders, promote international relations, secure labor-management harmony, increase marital happiness, and resolve other thorny problems via the T-group method of enhancing interpersonal communications. That so much has been promised by sensitivity training and so little delivered by evaluation and research suggests that psychiatrists should be increasingly aware and distressed about these programs.

56. Essig, Don E. *The Effects of Multiunit Differentiated Staffing Organization on Teachers' Attitudes and Instructional Programs.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Oregon, 1971.

**57. Etzioni, Amitai. *Complex Organizations, a Sociological Reader* Holt, Rinehart and Winston, New York, 1966.

58. Evan, W. M. "Superior-subordinate Conflict in Organizations," *Administrative Science Quarterly*, vol. 10, no. 1, June, 1965, pp 52-65.

59. Fein, Leonard J. *The Ecology of the Public Schools*, New York: Pegasus, 1971, 170 pages.

A social scientist's reasoned explication and evaluation.

60. Ferguson, Donald G. Student Involvement. A Working Paper. Paper presented at American Association of School Administrators Annual Convention, Atlantic City, New Jersey, February, 1971. 10 pages.

Students are clients of the educational system, but traditionally have had little voice in decisionmaking about the services they receive. Students are now demanding greater involvement, and administrators have tried a number of programs designed for student participation, generally with success. Some examples of successful programs are (1) student centers that provide a focus on students and serve to improve relations with students, (2) inclusion of students on deliberative and decisionmaking bodies to encourage greater communication and understanding between staff and students, and (3) involvement of students in producing innovative educational programs and services that better meet the needs and interests of students.

61. Fiedler, Fred E. "The Trouble with Leadership Training Is That It Doesn't Train Leaders", Psychology Today Magazine, CRM, Inc., Del Mar, Ca., February 1973, vol. 6, no. 9, pp 23-30 and p 92.

62. Flanagan, John C. A Critique of the Measurement and Instrumentation Aspects of Educational Evaluation and Decision-Making. American Institutes for Research in the Behavioral Sciences, Palo Alto, Calif. 5 pages.

This critique of the Phi Delta Kappa Study Committee on Evaluation's report opens with a short description of the report: its definition of evaluation as "the process of delineating, obtaining, and providing useful information for judging decision alternatives," its detailed description of the decision-making process together with descriptions of possible decision settings, decision types, and problems related to decision-making. Four types of evaluation referred to in the PDK report are discussed: context, input, process, and product. Support is given to the report's emphasis on context evaluation and its division into contingency and congruence modes. The distinction between context and product evaluations is endorsed, but the proposed development of specifications and procedures for data collection is considered inadequate. The suggestion to use individual students in evaluation studies is regarded as relevant and valuable but new data collection techniques are recommended. A case is made for greater involvement of students in determining individual educational objectives, particularly in their later educational years.

63. Fliegel, Seymour. "Practices That Improved Academic Performance in an Inner-City School." Phi Delta Kappan; 52; 6; pp 341-343, February 1971.

64. Flournoy, Don M. "Teacher and Students Share Course Decisions." English Education; 60; 2; pp 109-111, October 1969.

Describes experimental Dynamic Systems I course at Case Western Reserve University in which students and instructors made mutual decisions on type and frequency of exams, class sub-divisions, grading, special problem and weekly evaluations through a "course council." Emphasis was placed more on learning and understanding material than on grades.

65. Flynn, Wayne. The Principal as an Organizational Consultant to His Own School. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Oregon, 1971.

66. Freidson, Eliot and Buford Rhea, "Knowledge and Judgment in Professional Evaluations", Administrative Science Quarterly, published by the Graduate School of Business and Public Administration, Cornell University, New York, June, 1965, pp 107-124.

67. Frey, Sherman H. "Policy Formulation--A Plan Involving Teachers," The Clearing House, vol. 43, January, 1969.

68. Garvey, James F. "A Model for Professionalism", Journal of Secondary Education; 45; 3; pp 130-134, March 1970.

The best kind of professional situation is one in which decision making is decentralized at the point where the action takes place.

69. Gentry, Joe E. Organizational Training and its Impact on the Organizational Development of a Reconstituted School. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Auburn University, 1971.

*70 Gibb, Jack R. "Dynamics of Leadership", Administering Human Resources, compiled and edited by Francis M. Trusty, McCutchan Publishing Corporation, 1971, pp 165-178.

71. Gittell, Marilyn, et al. Local Control in Education. New York: Praeger, 1972, 142 pages.

A carefully designed evaluation of New York City local school districts in economically, ethnically, and racially disadvantaged communities with implications for the future of community school control.

72. Goldhammer, Keith, et al. Issues and Problems in Contemporary Educational Administration, Center for the Advanced Study of Educational Administration, University of Oregon, Eugene, Oregon, 1967.

73. Golembiewski, Robert T. The Small Group: An Analysis of Research Concepts and Operations. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1962.

74. Gore, W. J. "Decision-making Research: Some Prospects and Limitations," in S. Mailick and E. H. Van Ness (eds.) Concepts and Issues in Administrative Behavior. Englewood Cliffs, N. J., Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1962.

75. __________ and J. W. Dyson (eds.), The Making of Decisions. Glencoe, Ill., The Free Press, 1964.

76. Gorton, Richard A. "Factors Which Are Associated with the Principal's Behavior in Encouraging Teacher Participation in School Decision-Making." Journal of Educational Research; 64; 7; pp 325-327, March 1971.

77. __________ "Principals' Orientation Toward Participation in School Decision-Making." Journal of Secondary Education; 45; 3; pp 124-129, March, 1970.

Most school principals believe that in the areas of teacher personnel practices, behavior problems, final decisions on pupil promotion, and departmental allocation for instructional materials, they should make the final decisions and teachers should be involved only to the extent of commenting on their decisions.

78. Graham, Robert G and Clifford F. Gray. Business Games Handbook, American Management Association, Inc., 135 West 50th Street, New York, New York.

The aim of this handbook is to provide training directors and all others interested in business games with an organized listing and description of business games and their sources; and to provide a source of sufficient data to help them select games for a particular purpose. The games are categorized as general purpose games, used in management and decision making; and particular purpose games, developed for use in decision making in particular occupational areas. The book is divided into three parts. The first part includes introductory readings aimed at introducing the concept of the game, use of general and special purpose games, and industry use of games for training. The second presents abstracts of more than 200 games currently being used--description, purpose, and administration of the game, sources of information, and decisions made by the participant. Occupational areas covered by industrial games include: advertising, aerospace, agribusiness, banking, forest products, insurance, petroleum, transportation, and retailing and wholesaling. The third part contains a bibliography of articles and books.

79. Green, Thomas F. The Activities of Teaching. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1971. 234 pages.

A novel approach to educational philosophy--by way of analysis of the teaching-learning process rather than through the writings of philosophers.

**80. Griffiths, Daniel E. "Administration as Decision-Making", in Organizations and Human Behavior, McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 1969.

**81. ________ (ed.). Developing Taxonomies of Organizational Behavior in Education - Final Report. New York: New York University, April, 1968.

A detailed decision-making based classification schema is presented, with accompanying definitions.

82. Guetzkow, Harold and Herbert A. Simon. "The Impact of Certain Communication Nets upon Organization & Performance in Task-oriented Groups," Management Science, 1955, vol. 1, pp 233-250.

83. Grusky, O. "A Case for the Theory of Familiar Role Differentiation in Small Groups", Social Forces, 1957, pp 209-217.

84. Hage, Jerald. "An Axiomatic Theory of Organization", in Organizations and Human Behavior, McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 1969.

85. Hahn, Alan J. "Citizens in Local Politics: Nonparticipation and Unrepresentation." Journal of the Community Development Society; 1; 2; pp 63-74, Fall 1970.

A framework for understanding and working with local decision-making systems is provided. Guidelines are given in: (1) identifying the participants in the decision-making system; (2) determining the decision-making structure; and (3) following the stages in the process of decision-making. A list of typical participants includes people in local government, private general interests, nongovernmental agencies, private special interests, state and federal government, churches, labor unions, voluntary associations, and citizens (through voting, organization membership, and in crisis situations). The major types of decision-making structures are: mass participation, monolithic, polylithic, and pluralistic. Since monolithic and polylithic structures are the most common, they are further subdivided into cohesive, executive-centered, competitive, and fragmented structures. The 10 stages in the community decision-making process are: (1) interest recognition, (2) convergence of interest, (3) formulation of proposals and alternatives, (4) development of strategy, (5) organization of political support, (6) establishment of relationships with authoritative decision makers, (7) authoritative consideration, (8) decision, (9) policy implementation, and (10) interest recognition. A questionnaire for use in workshops is appended.

86. Hale, James R. and R. Allan Spanjer, *Systematic and Objective Analysis of Instruction Training Manual*, Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, Portland, Oregon, 1969.

**87. Hall, Jay and Martha S. Williams. "Group Dynamics Training and Improved Decisions Making," *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, VI (January-February-March, 1970), pp 39-67.

The authors investigated the efficacy of laboratory training in group dynamics as a technique for modifying group processes in the direction of theoretically more effective practices. They found that groups which underwent laboratory training consistently performed more effectively than untrained groups on measures of decision quality, utilization of superior resources, and creativity.

**88. Hall, John S. *Models for Rational Decision Making: Analysis of Literature and Selected Bibliography*. Eugene, Oregon: ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Administration, University of Oregon, September, 1970.

The analysis and bibliography combined here focus on: (1) current or developing decision-making models and strategies in education and evidence of effectiveness, and (2) existing or possible alternative models of authority systems and decision processes in schools.

**89. Halpin, Andrew W. "Leadership in the School" in *Organizational Behavior in Schools*, by Robert G. Owens, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1970.

**90. __________. "Organizational Climate", in *Organizational Behavior in Schools* by Robert G. Owens, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1970.

91. Hamilton, Norman K. "The Decision-Making Structure of a School System", *Educational Leadership*, May, 1972, pp 668-671.

*92. Hare, A. Paul, E. F. Borgotta and R. F. Bales, *The Small Group: Studies in Social Interaction*. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1955.

93. Hartley, Harry J. "Humanistic Existentialism and the School Administrator", in Administering Human Resources, compiled and edited by Francis M. Trusty, McCutchan Publishing Corporation, Berkeley, California, 1971, pp 42-55.

94. Hendrick, Irving G. and Reginald L. Jones, eds. Student Dissent in the Schools. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1972. 400 pages.

An instructive anthology of sources and statements on the gap between students and their teachers and administrators in public secondary schools in the U. S.

95. Hermann, Margaret and Nathan Kogan. "Negotiation in Leader and Delegate Groups", Journal of Conflict Resolution, 1968; 12; pp 332-344.

From situations of the campus to those of world conflict, many hopes have come to be centered in the efficacy of negotiations and negotiators. Thus, conflict resolution is becoming an area of pressing concern in social psychology. This study explored the question of how negotiations carried out by individuals with delegated authority differ from negotiations carried out by people with leadership roles. (A real life analogue, for example, would be negotiations by relatively unknown diplomats versus negotiations by the Presidents of two countries in conflict.) A notable finding was that in negotiations leaders tend to be more influenced by other leaders than are delegates by other delegates. Another important finding was that negotiating leaders will take greater risks than negotiating delegates. This came through investigation of what is known as risky-shift phenomena--and the study is one of the first to be made of intergroup risky-shift. The study should be of interest to social psychologists, sociologists, and political scientists--as well as anyone in education facing a situation of possible conflict with the necessity for negotiations to resolve it.

*96. Hills, R. Jean. Toward a Science of Organization. Center for the Advanced Study of Educational Administration, University of Oregon, Eugene, Oregon, 1968.

**97. Hoffman, L. Richard. "Group Problem Solving." Advances in Experimental Social Psychology, Leonard Berkowitz (ed.). New York: Academic Press, 1965, pp 99-127.

This chapter presents a thorough survey of research in the area of group problem solving within the following framework: Section II examines "Factors Inhibiting Effective Problem Solving," including pressures toward uniformity, the sources of such pressure, participation biases, group structure, and failure to search for problems; Section III addresses "Factors Promoting Effective Problem Solving," including group composition, group process, leadership in group problem solving, and acceptance. Section IV is a summary of "The Present State of Group Problem-Solving Research."

98. Honn, Floyd R. "What's Happening?" Journal of Secondary Education; 45; 3; pp 143-144, March 1970.

Court decisions are awarding students more rights than ever before, and school administrators are losing their right to control the activities that are conducted on school premises.

99. House, James E. "Can the Student Participate in His Own Destiny?" Educational Leadership; 27; 5; pp 442-445, February 1970.

100. Hunsdon, Stanley B. Effects of Training in Organizational Development on Some Social Psychological Characteristics of School Faculties. Doctoral dissertation in progress, University of Oregon.

101. Illich, Ivan D. Celebration of Awareness: A Call for Institutional Revolution. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday, 1971, 181 pages.

Reprint of a collection of essays (1970) by a self-styled "notorious" educational iconoclast with an international following.

102. Inlow, Gail M. Values in Transition: A Handbook. New York: Wiley, 1972, 205 pages.

A multi-faceted, serious-minded approach toward the enhancement of education through the development of knowledge, understanding, and assessment of the values of the contemporary culture.

103. Jakubs, John F. and others. Port Sivad: A Locational Decision Game for a Noxious Public Facility. Columbus: Ohio State University, Department of Geography.

The project presented here provides a role-playing game simulation that points out the complexities of locational decision and indicates ways in which those decisions might be influenced by various public and private citizens groups. It focuses on the bargaining, citizen reaction, and possible side payments. Designed as a heuristic device, the game focuses upon a number of issues: (1) inequities in the location of noxious public facilities; (2) the effect of citizen organization on governmental decision-making processes; (3) potential influence of money power on politics; (4) civil disobedience as an instrument of power; (5) the pressure of time on decision making; and, (6) the overall nature of group interaction with regard to locational decisions. The total number of players must be at least fifteen, and an ideal number would fall between thirty and sixty. The three major sections of the paper are: (1) the game materials in their entirety; (2) instruction and comments on the organization of the game, illustrating possible outcomes and points to be highlighted in class discussions; and, (3) a commentary on one play of the game. The game has been played primarily with undergraduate students, but it is equally instructive for individuals more directly involved in locational decisions.

104. James, J. Verbal Behavior in Problem-solving Small Groups Without Formally Designated Leaders. Research Study. Washington: Washington State College, 1956.

105. Jeffreys, M. V. C. Education: Its Nature and Purpose. New York: Barnes & Noble, 1971, 124 pages.

Thoughts by a well-known English educationist on the interrelation of the individual, the society, and the school.

*106. Jensen, Gale Edward. *Problems and Principles of Human Organization in Educational Systems.* Ann Arbor, Mich.: Ann Arbor Publishing, May, 1969.

The author looks at educational organizations from two basic perspectives: (1) functions, values, norms, roles, activities, rules and authority that arise in connection with establishing and maintaining the productivity of the system, and (2) functions, values, norms, roles, activities, rules and authority that protect the system against influences from within and without that disrupt its operation and/or threaten its continued existence (organizational security). He feels that the balancing of these two organizational factors is a major policy problem for educational systems, and that the particular organizational form which emerges will be greatly influenced by the specific policy decisions which are made about the way these two factors should be balanced. Bureaucratic organization is viewed as effective with respect to repressing conflict, but it does not appear to be especially effective at resolving it.

*107. Jung, Charles, Rene Pino, and Ruth Emory. *RUPS: Research Utilizing Problem Solving.* Classroom version, *Leader's manual.* Portland, Oregon: Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 1970.

This training manual is intended to provide concepts, skills, and techniques in retrieving and utilizing knowledge while in the process of identifying and diagnosing classroom problems and designing action plans to resolve them. Evaluation becomes a pattern of repeated objective diagnosis in this process. The design is for a five-day workshop followed by two 3-hour meetings while engaged in an on-the-job application project. Emphasis is upon improving problem awareness, problem solving, data processing, and communicative skills of classroom teachers through the use of a highly specific training procedure. The training manual is arranged in accordance with the sequence of sixteen "subsets" of the workshop design. Each subset includes an instructional strategy, a listing of procedures, materials, and instructions.

*108. Katz, D. and R. L. Kahn. *Social Psychology of Organizations.* New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1966.

109. Katz, Michael B. *Class, Bureaucracy, and Schools: The Illusion of Educational Change in America.* New York: Praeger, 1971. 158 pages.

A work for a general audience concerning the continuity of U. S. educational aims and organization from the 19th into the 20th century. Based on the writer's scholarly researches. Critical bibliographic essay.

110. Keniston, Kenneth. *Youth and Dissent: The Rise of a New Opposition.* New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1971, 403 pages.

111. Kinney, Gloria. "T-Grouping Exercises Put Schoolmen Through Their Paces and Problems", *Nation's Schools*, March, 1969.

**112. Kirkpatrick,Donald L. "The Training Manager and Motivation--A Review of Basic Literature", *Educational Technology*, IX September, 1969, pp S32-S35.

The author briefly describes the theories of motivation developed by Maslow, McGregor, Herzberg and McClelland, and suggests the following guidelines for effective motivation:

1. Each individual has his own needs that must be satisfied if he is going to put forth maximum effort.
2. An individual's needs can vary over a period of time. When one need is satisfied, another tends to emerge.
3. Every manager must establish a climate in which the individual's needs can be met. This climate must have two different dimensions: (a) the way the manager manages (the amount of freedom he allows, the effectiveness of his communications, his interpersonal relationships, etc.); and (b) the nature of the job the person is doing (routine and monotonous, or challenging and rewarding).

113. Kirst, Michael W. and David L. Grossman. Politics of Elementary and Secondary Education. Research Workshop Report. Working Document. National Academy of Education, Stanford, Calif.: National Academy of Sciences - National Research Council, Washington, D.C., January 1971, 61 pages.

This report, the result of a 5-day conference on the politics of education, reviews the four research focus areas covered during the conference: (1) new goals and objectives for educational institutions, (2) the political education of youth, (3) analysis of the governance of educational institutions, and (4) the study of input/output/feedback relationships in educational policy-making. All conference papers proffered specific suggestions for urgently needed research in the politics of education.

114. ________ and Decker F. Walker. "An Analysis of Curriculum Policy-Making". Review of Educational Research; 41; 5; pp 479-509, December, 1971.

Literature on public school curriculum development since 1950 is reviewed to determine who is determining curriculum policy-making. There is an increasingly political approach to curriculum questions on the part of the general public.

*115. Kleinmuntz, Benjamin (ed.). Problem Solving: Research, Method and Theory. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc.; 1966.

This volume integrates several major viewpoints on problem solving as they were voiced by twelve authorities at the first annual Symposium on Cognition held at the Carnegie Institute of Technology in April, 1965. Discussions and papers in this volume present detailed analyses of learning theory and complex information processing approaches to problem solving. Addressed to all informed psychologists, this book defines rigorous and experimental approaches to the study of problem solving. Included are works by Bert F. Green, Jr., Adriaan D. de Groot, Jeffrey M. Paige, Herbert A. Simon, Donald W. Taylor, Robert M. Gagne, John R. Hayes, Allen Newell, Israel Boldiamond, B. F. Skinner, Arthur W. Staats, D. E. Beslyne, and Gaslie A. Forehand. Of particular interest are the following: "Memory, Goals, and Problem Solving" by John R. Hayes, a detailed review of recent research with the type of problem solved by discreet steps, in order to explore the functioning of human information processing in the solution of such problems;"Human Problem Solving, Internal and External Events by Robert M. Gagne," an attempt to clarify findings among problem solving researchers, and provide a conceptual basis for further experimentation; "Current Trends in Problem Solving" by Bert F. Green, Jr., a review of the major experiments, concepts and theories on problem-solving to date; and "An Operant Analysis of Problem Solving" by B. F. Skinner, a conceptualization of problem solving in "operant" terms.

116. Kneller, George F. Introduction to the Philosophy of Education. New York: Wiley, 1971, 118 pages.

Second edition of a concise, lucid presentation (1964) of various approaches to educational thought.

117. Kogan, Nathan and W. Doise. "Effects of Anticipated Delegate Status on Group Risk Taking." Acta Psychologica, 1969, 29, pp 228-243.

Will prior knowledge that one is going to be a delegate defending a group's interests affect one's tendency to take risks? Exploring this question, this study found that on the whole anticipated delegate status neither raises nor lowers preferred risk levels in comparison with a control group. However, differences were observed between delegates who were selected randomly and those who were elected by the group. The randomly selected delegate seemed to have little influence on the group's choice of a risk level. In contrast, the chosen delegate had considerable influence on the group's choice of risk level, but sometimes of a backlash variety--that is, efforts to dominate the group can meet with rejection of the would-be dominator by the group. An aspect of interest is that the study was conducted at Nanterre in France shortly before the student riots of May and June 1968. This research should be of interest to social psychologists, political scientists, sociologists, and all concerned with small group behavior. It extends the frequent finding of an intragroup risky-shift effect to the case in which group members later expect to perform as delegates.

118. __________ and H. Lamm. "Risk Taking in the Context of Intergroup Negotiation." *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 1970.

The problem of negotiating solutions to conflicts is a meeting point for psychologists, political scientists, and international relations experts. Within psychology, an important facet of research has centered on risk-taking phenomena--that is, the ways people and groups take the various risks that are involved in reaching decisions acceptable to both parties in a conflict. This study sought to find out whether the risky-shift effect found within one group might also be found in negotiations between groups. The main finding was that the risky-shift effect breaks down when negotiators are strongly committed to a position on an issue which their reference group has taken prior to negotiation. However, negotiators with a minimal commitment to a prior position continue to manifest risky-shift effects. The study was carried out at the University of Mannheim. The research should be of interest to social psychologists, political scientists, international relations experts, and other social scientists working on conflict resolution.

119. __________, H. Lamm and G. Trommsdorf. "Pessimism-Optimism and Risk Taking." *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1970.*

Research has shown that groups tend to shift toward more risk taking in a standard experimental situation. Given this fact, the question has arisen whether there might also be a shift toward optimism, in the sense of the group assigning a higher probability of success to the risky alternative. Cognitive dissonance theory would predict such a result. However, this study found that, contrary to predictions, the groups became progressively more pessimistic in the risk-taking situation. Also, the relation between risk and pessimism was found to be asymmetrical. That is, risky-shifts are followed by pessimistic shifts, but pessimistic shifts are not followed by risky-shifts. The sample was of German students at the University of Mannheim. The research is within the risk-taking studies tradition and attempts to integrate the social psychological work concerned with comparing individual and group products. It should be of interest to social and organizational psychologists. The results are also important in attempting to generalize risky-shift work to the real world in that they indicate that pessimism may act as a reality brake on impulsive action by groups.

*120. Kravetz, Nathan, Ed. Management and Decision-Making in Educational Planning. International Institute for Educational Planning, United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, Paris, France, 1970, 232 pages.

This IIEP seminar focused on administrative, management, supervisory, and decisionmaking techniques that are useful in the educational planning process. The techniques studied included: Delphi, Program Evaluation and Review Technique (PERT), and Program Planning and Budgeting Systems (PPBS). Various experts presented papers on these techniques, and seminar participants later formed into working groups to study the application of these techniques to educational planning and decisionmaking problems. Papers written by members of these groups are included.

121. Krug, Edward A. The Shaping of the American High School: Volume 2, 1920-1941. Madison: University of Wisconsin Press, 1972, 375 pages.

A careful, thoroughly documented account of U. S. public secondary education.

122. Lang, Gladys Engel and others. Responses to a Decentralization Crisis, "Pulse of the Parent" #1: First in a Series of Reports of Parent Opinion Prepared by the Mass Media Committee. Center for Urban Education, New York, N. Y.

Discussed are some decision-making influences on the attitudes of New York City parents toward school decentralization. The mass media committee of the Center for Urban Education maintains a representative panel of parents from whom information about communication experiences and responses to educational issues can be gathered. Telephone interviews elicited the panel's responses to a number of facets of the question. Both white parents favoring decentralization and Negro parents in communities where the leaders support decentralization showed little agreement on how "parent influence" can achieve better education for the children. Supporters of decentralization are not demanding parental control. These "suggestive" poll findings imply that decentralization must be debated as an educational issue with specific application to the children.

123. Langmeyer, Daniel. An Exploratory Study of Group Effectiveness Using Two Tasks and Three Populations Differing in Organizational History. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Oregon, 1968.

124. Lansky, Leonard et al. The Effects of Human Relations Training on Diagnosing Skills and Planning for Change. Eugene, Oregon: Center for Advanced Study of Educational Administration, University of Oregon, July, 1969.

The authors conclude that a one-shot laboratory training experience for administrators conducted outside the context of the organizational system within which the participants engaged is not a very effective or powerful tool for initiating and maintaining significant behavior change in the back-home situation.

125. Lessinger, Leon M. 'The Powerful Notion of Accountability in Education", in "Emerging Patterns of Administrative Accountability, compiled and edited by Lesley H. Browder, Jr., McCutchan Publishing Company, Berkeley, 1971, pp 62-73

*126. _________ and Ralph W. Tyler, eds. Accountability in Education. Worthington, Ohio: Charles A. Jones Publishing Co., 1971, 85 pages.

Anthology of statements by educational and political leaders. Abundant bibliographical references.

127. Levine, Daniel U. and Robert J. Havighurst, eds. Farewell to Schools??? Worthington, Ohio: Charles A. Jones Publishing Co., 1971, 103 pages.

A dialogue between supporters and critics of radical reform of institutional education.

128. Lieberman, Myron. "Faculty Senates: Institutionalized Irresponsibility", Phi Delta Kappan, Volume LI, Number 1, September, 1969.

129. Lopate, Carol and others. Some Effects of Parent and Community Participation on Public Education. Columbia University, New York, N. Y. ERIC Clearinghouse on the Urban Disadvantaged, February 1969, 50 pages.

This review paper on the current issue of school decentralization points out that it has been consistently demonstrated that participation in the decision making process results in positive changes in both the affective and instrumental behavior of participants. Studies show that parent involvement in the schools enhances children's development and academic achievement. The invidious sense of powerlessness felt by minority group parents and children in dealing with such middle class institutions as the schools would be lessened if they actively participated in the decisions affecting a significant part of their lives. Concomitantly, an improved self concept and greater sense of fate control, leading to changes in the child's aspirations, attitudes, and motivation, would increase academic achievement. Moreover, strengthening the integrity of the neighborhood school and the community would also serve to enhance child development. The minority group child's heightened self worth and sense of control over his destiny (mentioned in the Coleman report as such an important element in school success) would be encouraged by his awareness of the participation of parents and community groups in effecting changes in educational policy and programs.

130. Love, Thomas M. A Study of the Impact of Collective Negotiation by Teacher Participation in the Making and Review of School Policies. Madison, Wisc.: Wisconsin University, January 1968, 26 pages.

A survey of 170 school districts was conducted to determine the type and amount of teacher participation in school policy decisionmaking. Ninety of these districts engage in collective negotiation in which teachers are represented exclusively by one teacher organization. In the remaining 80 districts, either a teacher organization is not recognized or teacher representation is on a proportional, separate, or council basis. Other variables considered during sampling and data analysis were the affiliation of local teacher organizations, school system size, and state laws. Questionnaire and interview responses indicate that collective negotiation enlarges teacher participation in decisionmaking and necessitates role adjustments by teachers, administrators, and school boards. (The latter two groups, however, have retained areas of discretion.) Responses also show that collective negotiations are concerned primarily with personnel policy and secondarily with the implementation of educational policy. However, teachers are using collective negotiation to create alternative and more suitable procedures for making decisions about the development and evaluation of educational policies. Finally, the survey revealed that unions are more active than their association counterparts and that teacher participation is greatest in large school systems in which unions hold exclusive representation and where state laws encourage collective negotiation.

131. Luce, R. Duncan and Howard Raiffa. Games and Decisions. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1957.

*132. Maier, Norman F. Problem Solving and Creativity in Individuals and Groups. Belmont, Calif.: Brooks/Cole Publishing Company, 1970.

Maier's volume is a collection of published and unpublished studies of group and individual problem solving conducted under Maier during the last ten years. Studies that have implications in psychological theory have largely determined our selection. Since various aspects of theory are involved, the studies have been grouped into eight parts, Part Nine being added as a concluding section. Each part is preceded by an introduction that raises basic issues relevant to theories around which research on problem solving in general has centered.

133. Marburger, Carl L. School and Community: The Need for a New Relationship. Los Angeles, Calif.: American Educational Research Assn., February 1969.

At a time when schools must adapt to rapid change in the social and economic structure of the community, educational leaders tend to insulate themselves from political reality. The educational leader is responsible for balancing the two forces of politics and change, which pull at the school's resources in opposite directions. He must develop political insight and judgment because of the rising costs of education and growing confrontations with parent dissatisfaction, teacher organizations, and student unrest. Other major social forces and developments modifying the traditional school-community relationship include: (1) the Federal Government's increasingly active role in public education, (2) continuing poverty in the midst of an affluent society, and (3) cybernation, with its resultant decreased dependency on human labor. Recent attempts by educational leaders to resolve problems of decentralization and racial integration illustrate the educational administrator's intrinsically political response to the influence of special interest groups and the changing relationship between the school and the community.

134. March, J. G. and H. A. Simon. Organizations. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1958.

135. Marland, Sidney P. "Accountability in Education", Teachers College Record, New York: Columbia University, vol. 73, no. 3, February, 1972, pp 339-345.

**136. McGregor, Douglas. The Professional Manager. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967.

137. McGrew, Jean B. "Student Participation in Decision-Making. Report on a Conference." NASSP Bulletin; 54; 344; pp 124-133, March 1970.

138. McNassor, Donald J. "Decision-Making Process in a Revolution". Journal of Secondary Education; 44; 6; pp 265-270, October, 1969.

139. Melrood, Margot. A Bibliography on Decentralization. Milwaukee: University of Wisconsin, Institute of Governmental Affairs, 1970, 35 pages.

This annotated bibliography was compiled as a library research project at the University of Wisconsin at Milwaukee. Part I of the listing deals with decentralization as a structural feature of the local political system. Part II examines the process of local citizen participation. Parts III and IV focus on community control in the decentralization of education and the formation of community corporations.

140. Michener, H. Andrew and Mark Tausig. "Usurpation and Perceived Support as Determinants of the Endorsement Accorded Formal Leaders." Journal of Personality and Social Psychology; 18; 3; pp 364-372, June, 1971.

Suggests that usurpation of control by a leader causes low-status group members to become dissatisfied with participation, but perceived lack of support causes dissatisfaction with the level of goal attainment. Tables and bibliography.

141. Miles, M. B. and Richard A. Schmuck. "Improving Schools through Organization Development: An Overview." In R. A. Schmuck and M. B. Miles (eds.) Organization Development in Schools. Palo Alto: National Press Books, 1971, pp 1-27.

142. Milton, Ohmer. Survey of Faculty Views on Student Participation in Decision Making. Final Report. Knoxville: University of Tennessee, 35 pages, May 1968.

Many students seek and many administrators have called for greater student involvement in important academic decision making. And because faculty members, who control most academic policies and procedures, have remained strangely silent about such matters, it was decided to investigate, in a more detailed and systematic fashion than had been done previously, their attitudes toward student participation in determining cogent campus policies. At the same time, an effort was made to obtain data that might indirectly reflect the conventionality of faculty thinking about approaches to teaching and learning.

A randomly selected sample of 200 faculty members was interviewed at 4 colleges and 2 universities. "Yes", "No", or "Don't know" answers to questions regarding specific areas of student participation (e.g., curriculum planning) could be qualified. There was general agreement that students should participate extensively in matters of student discipline, but not in the affairs of a legal governing board. They should be encouraged to complete evaluative types of questionnaires on teachers, but the results should be seen only by the teacher concerned. In other areas, a "Yes" vote meant only that student ideas should be heard, but the means for obtaining their views is left unclear. This study has been highly limited in its sampling of institutions, and more land-grant colleges and universities should be sampled via mailed questionnaires.

**143. Minor, John B. The School Administrator and Organizational Character. The Center for the Advanced Study of Educational Administration, University of Oregon, Eugene, Oregon.

144. Mitchell, Donald P. Leadership in Public Education Study. Academy for Educational Development, Inc., 1972.

145. Moore, Nathaniel H. "Power and the Powerless." Educational Leadership; 27; 4; pp 389-391, January, 1970.

In order to develop a curriculum that will satisfy the needs of the student, decision making power must be made diffuse.

**146. Newcomer, L. B. "Decentralized Decision-Making: Key to Responsive Change." California School Boards, vol. 30, no. 5, May 1971.

147. O'Brien, Gordon E. and A. G. Owens. "Effects of Organizational Structure on Correlations between Member Abilities and Group Productivity." Journal of Applied Psychology, LIII (1969), pp 525, 530.

Citing two studies, the authors find that the contribution of member ability to group productivity is dependent on both the ability of the member and the kind of task organization employed by the group. They feel that task-relevant abilities are significantly related to group productivity only in those task organizations requiring coordination, and then only for the summed abilities and the abilities of the dullest member of each group. They suggest that the assignment of individuals to groups should be made after consideration of their abilities, the ability of other group members, and the type of task organization.

148. Office of Economic Opportunity. Participation of the Poor in the Community Decision-Making Process. Washington, D.C.: OEO, Community Action Program, 43 pages, August, 1969.

This paper identified key factors which promote participation of the poor (resident participation) through group action and community decision making processes, programs, and activities; and describes techniques which Community Action Program (CAP) grantees have used successfully to enhance such participation. Kinds of CAP grantee and community activities have included membership in community action agencies (CAAS) and other policy boards and committees, employment in public and private agencies, administration and operation of economic self-help and other programs, and individual exercise of rights and privileges as citizens. Guidelines presented here are based on resident participation in 22 urban and rural CAAs in January 1969, discussions with Office of Economic Opportunity regional personnel, and selected evaluative reports prepared under Federal contracts. Appendix A contains case studies of successful, locally initiated group action.

*149. Osborn, William C and Barbara Ettinger Goodman. A Tentative Organizational Schema for Decision-Making Problems. Alexandria, Va.: Human Resources Research Organization, July 1966.

This is an attempt to delineate the component response processes that lead to real-life decisions in psychologically complex situations. The tentative organization of decision behavior followed was (a) to identify and descriptively define the relevant stimulus and organismic factors, and (b) especially to schematize the response dimensions involved, in such a way as to derive a tentative response matrix. Resulting from this is an organizational schema for use in analyzing the response aspects of the decision-making process in terms of the pertinent psychological dimensions of decision behavior.

***150. Owens, Robert G. Organizational Behavior in Schools. Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, 1970. (See #89, #90 and #174.

151. Owens, Thomas R. Application of Adversary Proceedings to Educational Evaluation and Decision-Making. Bethesda, Md.: EDRS, 15 pages, February, 1971.

The adversary principle, as used in law proceedings for judging merits of cases involving opposing parties, is considered as an aid to educational evaluation and decision-making. Its use in education is suggested as an alternative way of interpreting, synthesizing, and reporting evidence. Potential uses discussed include (1) exploring values inherent in a new or existing curriculum, (2) estimating the congruence between an innovation and the existing school system, (3) revealing how various group representatives interpret the same data, (4) informing educators of the advantages and limitations of a project, (5) resolving disputes regarding the fulfillment of performance contracts, and (6) arriving at actual decisions to be implemented. The relevance of the use of adversary proceedings to three widely discussed evaluation models is shown. A trial hearing conducted at the Hawaii Curriculum Center to explore the practicality of the technique is described in detail. Advantages and limitations of the adversary principle as a strategy for educational evaluation and decision-making are fully discussed.

152. Parsons, Talcott. *The Social System.* Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1951.

**153. Phillips, Gerald M. *Communication and the Small Group. Bobbs Merrill Series in Speech Communication.* New York: Bobbs Merrill, Queens College of the City University of New York, 1966.

154. Piele, Philip K. *Conflict Management in Education.* Research Review. Eugene, Oregon: University of Oregon, 4 pages, 1971.

Because conflict has become a pervasive element within the school environment as well as in the larger community, this review, based on reports abstracted in RIE, focuses on conflict management. Such management seeks and uses ways to understand and deal with the differing opinions, needs, and ideas that are a part of the contemporary school. The documents reviewed discuss such issues as (1) the conflicting perceptions of administrators and teachers, (2) the operational procedures of school boards in relation to community resources, and (3) the interracial conflict in urban schools.

155. _______________, et al. *Social and Technological Change, Implications for Education.* The Center for the Advanced Study of Educational Administration, Eugene, Oregon, 1970.

156. Porter, Katherine. *The Effect of Training in Organization Development on School District Personnel in Key Line Positions.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Oregon, 1972.

157. ---------. PPBS and the School, New System Promotes Efficiency Accountability. Special Report. Published by National School Public Relations Association (Education U.S.E.), 1972.

158. Prince, Gerald, George M. Carnie and Deanna Carnie. Beginning Handbook for Change: Toward the Human Element. CFK, Ltd., Golden, Colorado, 1972.

159. Procopia, Fred J. "The Student in Decision-Making." NJEA Review; 44; 7; 21, 54, March 1971.

160. Rhine, Ramon J. and William A. J. Polowniak. "Attitude Change, Commitment, and Ego Involvement." Journal of Personality and Social Psychology; 19; 1; pp 247-250, August, 1971.

*161. Schmuck, Richard A. "Developing Collaborative Decision Making: the Importance of Trusting, Strong, and Skillful Leaders." Educational Technology, in press.

*162. __________ and Arthur Blumberg. "Teacher Participation in Organizational Decisions." Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1969.

**163. __________ and Matthew B. Miles (eds.). Organization Development in Schools. Palo Alto, Calif.: National Press Books, 1971.

**164. __________ and Philip J. Runkel. Organizational Training for a School Faculty. Eugene, Oregon: University of Oregon Press, 1970.

This book-length report presents a detailed account of a CASEA (The Center for the Advanced Study of Educational Administration) experiment at Highland Park Junior High School in Beaverton, Oregon, designed to increase the organizational problem-solving ability of a school faculty by improving communication skills. The CASEA team worked to improve Highland Park by increasing the communicative abilities of its groups, so that honest, direct, and innovative action could be internally and independently developed by the resident school faculty. Using summer workshops, small group interaction, and periodic "intervention" throughout the school year, the report claims that a number of desirable outcomes were at least partly due to the intervention. Many teachers began using a greater variety of more effective group techniques in their classrooms. Collaborating groups of teachers increased in strength and number. The Principal's Advisory Committee became potently and specifically representative rather than merely advisory. Faculty turnover decreased well below the rates at the other junior high schools in the district.

**165. __________ and Philip J. Runkel. *A Preliminary Manual for Organizational Training in Schools.* Eugene, Oregon: University of Oregon, 72 pages, 1968.

The special concern of this manual is the improvement of working relationships among the members of a school's administration, faculty, and staff. Studies have indicated that for complex problems offering many alternatives, decisions produced by group interaction are usually far superior to decisions produced solely by individuals. To achieve consensual decision-making, organizational development must take effect through some formal training. The exercises in this manual provide training in the use of group resources, the clarification of roles, organizational participation, problem-solving, improving meetings, and planning organizational training.

166. __________, Philip J. Runkel, and Daniel Langmeyer. "Improving Organizational Problem Solving in a School Faculty". Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 1969, 5(4), 455-482. Winner of 1969 McGregor Award. Reprinted in ISR *Journal of Educational Personnel Relations,* 1970, 2(2), 69-93. Adapted and retitled: "Using Group Problem-Solving Procedures". In R. A. Schmuck and M. B. Miles (eds.), *Organization Development in Schools.* Palo Alto: National Press Books, 1971, pp 51-69.

*167. __________, Philip J. Runkel, Steven L. Saturen, Ronald T. Martell and C. Brooklyn Derr. *Handbook of Organization Development in Schools.* Palo Alto: National Press Books, 1972.

**168. --------- *Self Development Aids for Supervisors and Middle Managers.* Personnel Bibliography Series, Number 34, Library, U.S. Civil Service Commission, Washington, D.C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1970.

This annotated bibliography brings together material selected on the basis of its general availability in public and federal libraries in the following areas: Identification and Development of Managerial Skills; Career Planning; Improving Leadership Skills; Human Relations Skills;

Managing Health and Tension: Followership: Completed Staff Work; Developing Creative Ability and Innovative Skills; Management of Time; Decision-Making and Problem Solving Skills; Communication Skills--General; Delegation and Order-Giving; Effective Speaking; Telephone Usage; Effective Listening; Writing Improvement; Conference Leadership and Participation; Reading Improvement.

169. Sharma, Chiranji Lal. "Who Should Make What Decisions?" III The Administrator's Notebook, April, 1955.

**170. Shepherd, Clovis R. Small Groups, Sociological Perspectives. San Francisco: Chandler Publishing Co., 1964.

**171. Shull, Fremont A. et al. Organizational Decision Making. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1970.

172. Sigband, Norman B. "Listen to What You Can't Hear." Administering Human Resources, compiled and edited by Francis M. Trusty, McCutchan Publishing Company, 1971, pp 191-195.

*173. Simon, Herbert A. Administrative Behavior, Second Edition. New York: The Free Press, 1965.

**174. ________ "Decision Making", in Organizational Behavior in Schools by Robert G. Owens, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1970.

175. Spiess, John A. Community Power Study Applications to Educational Administration and Supervision. Toledo: University of Ohio, Dept. of Educational Administration and Supervision, 64 pages, October 1971.

This report discusses theories about and studies on the relationship between school districts and community power structures. It offers practical techniques for decisionmakers to use in dealing with such power structures. Various participants and influentials in the community power structure are identified and discussed. Two major power typologies are presented: (1) the sociology-based or reputational, which is representative of those who view a community power structure as pyramidal in shape with only a few elite at the top; and (2) the issue analysis, which is often representative of the view of political scientists, who argue that power and influence patterns often change from issue to issue since people are more inclined to become involved in issues that interest them individually. The author suggests that while most studies support the reputational point of view, educational administrators, by assigning greater emphasis to issue analysis, would fare better in dealing with power structures.

**176. Stemnock, Suzanne K. Framework for Student Involvement. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 34 pages, November, 1970.

One hundred and forty-six school systems that had reported student participation in administration were sent followup requests for details. This circular, based on data provided by the 74 responding systems, begins with a summary of the data in the student organization tables. The areas of student participation in decisionmaking are (1) advisory committees to superintendents and boards of education, (2) advisory committees to principals, (3) representation on districtwide curriculum committees, (4) participation in curriculum planning in individual schools, and (5) representation on ad hoc advisory committees. The tables identify the school system, and describe the organizational structure and the responsibilities of each student committee. Samples of school board policies, an index to contributing schools, and resolutions on student involvement by educational organizations are included.

177. Straus, David A., Christopher Thorsen and Ruth E. Thorsen. Tools for Change: A Basic Course in Problem-Solving. Interaction, Inc., September, 1969.

This is a basic course in problem-solving which describes a set of basic heuristic processes designed to significantly enhance productivity and flexibility in thinking, and suggests the use of games to foster awareness of these principles, and a common "language of process" to improve communication among problem-solvers. The course model provided, although flexible, provides for the presentation of a series of units each focused on a subject area or set of heuristic processes or strategies. Alternating between "experience" and "discussion of experience", each unit relates to three two-hour sessions taught on separate days. The report includes a general bibliography, a glossary of heuristic terms, a detailed course outline, and lists of films and games available from commercial outlets in the San Francisco Bay area.

178. Swanson, Bert F. Decision-Making in the School Desegregation--Decentralization Controversies. Final Report. Bronxville, New York: Sarah Lawrence College, Center for Continuing Education and Community Studies, 316 pages, April 1969.

This study concentrates on the significant changes in policies and decisions as the New York City School System shifted from its previous efforts to desegregate the schools to the current attempts at decentralization. The major controversy in the City is now focused on who shall govern the schools. Findings are based on a three-part systems analysis, and the data are drawn from the experience of I.S. 201, Two Bridges, and Ocean Hill-Brownsville experimental school districts. Discussed are the administrative issues, the demographic aspects of these schools and communities, and the parents' characteristics and attitudes. Also included are chapters on a systems analysis of the transformation of urban education, and on the nature of the communication between the authorities and their clients. Not available in hard copy due to marginal legibility of original document.

179. Tannenbaum, Arnold S. "Personal Adiustment and Conflict in the Work Organization," in Administering Human Resources, compiled and edited by Francis M. Trusty, McCutchan Publishing Company, 1971, pp 213-243. See #186.

180. Tannenbaum, Robert and Fred Massarik. "Participation by Subordinates in the Managerial Decision-Making Process," Canadian Journal of Economics and Political Science, vol. 16, no. 4, August, 1950, pp 410-413.

181. Taylor, P. W., P. C. Berry and C. H. Block: "Does Group Participation When Using Brainstorming Facilitate or Inhibit Creative Thinking?" Admin. Science Quarterly, vol. 3, 1958, pp 23-47.

182. Telfer, Richard G. "Staff Involvement: Key to Curriculum Improvement." Clearing House; 43; 9; pp 539-542, May 1969.

**183. Thompson, James D. Organization in Action, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1967.

184. Thompson, Victor A. 'Hierarchy, Specialization, and Organizational Conflict", in Organizations and Human Behavior, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1969.

185. Tracey, William R. Designing Training and Development Systems, New York: American Management Association, Inc., 135 West 50th Street, New York, 1971.

***186. Trusty, Francis M. (Compiled and Edited). Administering Human Resources. McCutchan Publishing Corporation, 1971.

Excellent collection of several articles, some of which are mentioned elsewhere in this bibliography, see #1, 20, 68, 91, 172, 179.

**187. Van De Ven, Andrew and Andre L. Delbecq. "Nominal Versus Interacting Group Processes for Committee Decision-Making Effectiveness," Academy of Management Journal, XIV, June, 1971, pp 203-212.

This article reviews literature dealing with the relative effectiveness of interacting (spontaneous group discussion) as opposed to nominal (individual silent effort in a group setting) group processes for problem-solving committees. The authors claim that the optimal combination of group processes for a problem-solving committee is: (1) the use of nominal group processes for fact-finding, idea generation, or initial subjective probability estimation in the first phase of a committee's work; (2) the use of structured feedback and interacting discussion in the second phase; and (3) nominal group voting for final independent individual judgments in the final phase. The relative advantages and disadvantages of each method are discussed in some detail.

188. Wasserman, Paul and Fred S. Silander. Decision-Making: An Annotated Bibliography Supplement, 1958 - 1963. Ithaca, New York: Cornell University, 1964.

This supplement brings up to 1964 the review of the literature of decision-making contained in a publication of 1958. The annotations are descriptive, rather than critical, and are categorized under the headings: general and theoretical material, leadership, behavioral decision theory, small groups, community decision making, communications and information handling, techniques and methods, and cases and applications. An author index and a title index are provided. There are about 500 items.

189. Watson, Eugene R. "Group Communications and Developmental Processes", developed by University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, in High School Journal, May, 1969.

190. Weaver, W. Timothy. "The Delphi Forecasting Method." in Emerging Patterns of Administrative Accountability edited by Leslie H. Browder, Jr., McCutchan Publishing Corporation, 1971. See #29.

*191. Williams, Richard D. Teacher Militancy: Implications for the Schools. Eugene, Oregon: Center for Advanced Study of Educational Administration, University of Oregon, 48 pages, 1970.

Teacher militancy in America has increased rapidly in the past decade, as evidenced by the rapid increase in teacher strikes. Teachers are frustrated by substandard salaries, lack of authority over teaching conditions, and absence of professional autonomy. Teachers demand greater participation in educational decisionmaking. Three models used in conceptualizing teacher involvement are: (1) modified hierarchy, where teachers may make recommendations but ultimate decisionmaking authority remains with management; (2) academic, where certain areas of responsibility are delegated to faculty; and (3) union, where teachers and management are regarded as conflicting parties and differences are resolved by negotiation. The present situation in public elementary and secondary education appears to favor the union model--implying an increase in conflict between school managers and teachers and in teacher participation. The ultimate impact of teacher militancy on educational quality remains to be seen.

192. Willings, David R. How to Use the Case Study in Training for Decision Making. Business Publications Ltd., London S.E.1, England: Mercury House, Waterloo Road. 273 pages, 1968.

This book examines in depth the proper use of case studies in training managerial decision makers and defines the varying types of case study and their comparative advantages. The second part examines the process of decision making and shows how the case study can here act as a sensitizing agent. Part Three is concerned with the use of case studies and with how they may be tailored to the requirements of individual companies. Preparation of the case study is covered in Part Four. The fifth part is devoted to the presentation of the case study; several methods (discussion technique, role playing, participation techniques, simulated management technique, and apex technique) are described and evaluated. Part Six presents five specimen case studies--two organization studies and three individual studies. A bibliography is included.

193. Wilson, Peter A. "Some Thoughts on Student Power." National Association of Student Personnel Administration; 8; 2; pp 90-96, October 1970.

Reviews student concerns regarding participation in educational decision making, especially at graduate level. Suggests that university must change rapidly or lose confidence of those youth trying to function within established structure.

*194. Wood, Michael T. Some Determinants and Consequences of Power Distribution in Decision-Making Groups. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, 25 pages, September, 1971.

This dissertation address concerns the distribution of influence in decision-making groups. One general hypothesis of the study was that influence perceptions of group members depend upon the phases of decision-making in which they participate. Another was that the effects of participation would vary with the nature of the decision task or with issues to be resolved. Referencing the size of the "influence pie", total intragroup influence was predicted to be greater in facilitative than in contrastive conditions. Finally, the relationships between perceived influence and satisfaction, and between participation and satisfaction, were seen to be dependent on individual differences in power and affiliation motivation. The summary includes that (1) a viable theory of power in organizations must take into account differences in organizational situations and the characteristics of individuals who perform organizational roles. For example, sex was found to determine perceptions of influence in varying participative settings; and (2) interpersonal power in a group or organizational setting is conceived of as an intervening process outcome, rather than a structural given or a terminal effect.

195. Zimmerman, Herbert M. "The Community and the Schools: Who Are the Decision-Makers?" National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin; 53; 337; pp 169-175, May 1969.

PRACTITIONERS QUESTIONS
CONCERNING
SHARED DECISION MAKING

Rodger E. Cryer
Project Director

James L. Olivero, Ed.D.
Primary Consultant

Hollis H. Moore, Ph.D.
Consultant

Ms. Wendy Portnuff
Consultant

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Editor's Preface

As a way to use the Shared Decision Making materials, educators may wish to refer to the questions listed on the following pages. These questions were gathered from teachers, principals and others who have had some involvement in working with educational decision making groups. As such, the list represents practical concerns about several aspects of decision groups--concerns derived from "real-life" situations.

These questions are grouped under the following eight headings:

(1) Rationale for Shared Decision Making

(2) Personality Characteristics and Institutional Values

(3) Models for Shared Decision Making

(4) Location and Appropriateness of Decision Making Responsibility

(5) Problem Solving and Decision Making Processes

(6) Communicating Results of Decisions

(7) Accountability and Responsibility

(8) Evaluating the Effectiveness and Efficiency of Shared Decision Making

They are arranged to correspond to the eight areas of concern which served as a basis for the creation of the Shared Decision Making training manuals and discussion papers.

Modeled after Dr. Benjamin Spock's well known baby book, which contains an index prepared for parents faced with specific problems, the authors felt that the series of educational practitioners' questions, together with our recommended short answers, can provide direct information, in brief and concise form, to those who daily confront sometimes ambiguous and confusing shared decision situations.

While acknowledging that much is lost in the process of condensing "answers" for the sake of brevity, the authors recommend that users refer to the training series manuals corresponding to each set of questions to become more familiar with the area of concern. For example, a question found under the heading of "Models for Shared Decision Making" may be more completely understood by referring to the discussion guide entitled Decision Making Models. Requesting and reading this material may provide greater insight to the questions than our "short, summary answers."

As an additional resource, educators who are interested in consulting the research basis underlying each of the eight sets of questions may request these materials from Dr. James L. Olivero, Nueva Day School & Learning Center, 6565 Skyline Blvd., Hillsborough, California 94010.

Rationale for Shared Decision Making

1. Are crises the major forces which cause the shared decision making groups to be formed?

It appears that more and more schools, of their own accord, are becoming involved in shared decision making. At this time, however, it appears that much of the involvement has been the result of a crisis situation, e.g., in terms of shifting power more to teachers and/or militant students or answering the demands from minority communities. Because of the circumstances evident in our society currently, many school administrators must soon become more knowledgeable about and concerned with the shared decision making process.

2. Does shared decision making allow for more "risks" to be incorporated in the final decisions?

It does appear that shared decision making allows for more "risk taking" for these two reasons: (1) in a group, participants sometimes believe there is greater strength than when individuals operate singly, and (2) sometimes group decisions tend to negate feelings of individual responsibility for a given decision.

3. Does shared decision making prepare children for participatory action later in their lives?

One of the strong arguments for shared decision making, particularly when students are involved as representatives in the group (or have some substantive input to a decision making group) is the focus it places on the process of a democratic society. The roles many educational institutions have fostered often more closely resembled the "benevolent despot" model or the "authoritarian" model.

4. Can an established procedure for shared decision making be carried on if the participants in the shared decision making group change?

Undoubtedly shared participation can continue though a change in the composition of the decision making group occurs. Such changes in the decision making group do cause problems in terms of reorientation to accommodate the new personality characteristics for the new group. We have little significant information which helps us to know whether changing a principal causes greater adjustment difficulties than changing other members of a decision making group.

5. Since the teacher is the key to learning, shouldn't the teacher have a role in decision making commensurate with the tasks in the classroom which he or she performs?

A strong argument offered by teachers associations (NEA and AFT) is for involvement of teachers at the decision making level because ultimately the teacher must carry out decisions at the classroom level. A number of teachers have indicated, however, that they wish no part of shared decision making, preferring to be left alone in their individual classrooms. This somewhat dichotomous situation has not yet been fully resolved. It is the bias of the authors that the answer will emerge from activities in alternative schools where children and educators can exercise choice in selecting one alternative over another, based upon the merits of each structure after a fair trial procedure.

6. Does the decision making process "evolve" in response to total environment rather than to specifically identifiable forces?

To some extent the decision making process does "evolve" in response to the total environment of the school and the personalities in the setting. Because we do not yet have all the necessary information to assure that shared decision making will be effective during the initial phases, many schools find that they must begin on "faith" and be ready to explore whatever modifications to the process seem reasonable. Preparatory study, participation in special workshops, visitations to already active shared decision making schools, and other definitive procedures can prove helpful. Contact Dr. Raymond G. Melton, Director, National Cluster Coordination Center, 2418 Hatton Street, Sarasota, Florida 33577 for more information.

7. What is the ultimate goal of shared decision making? Is it to involve staff? Or is it to get "better" decisions?

There may be no "ultimate" goal for shared decision making in the usual sense. There are, however, a variety of sub-goals which can be determined by the group participating. In addition to "greater involvement" of the staff, "greater accountability for decision making" and "the inalienable right of people who are affected by decisions to help make those decisions" emerge as major sub-goals seen by those currently involved in shared decision making. Precise evidence that "shared decisions are better decisions" is not yet available.

8. Under what conditions is shared decision making appropriate?

Thus far one cannot state unequivocally what the most appropriate conditions for shared decision making are. It appears that there is greater probability for success when those involved can design a procedure which is free from undue stress. In addition, it appears schools must have reasonable models for shared decision making, that teachers must be willing to participate, and that principals must be willing and able to surrender a portion of their power. A great deal of research and testing is needed to further illuminate the full dimensions of this problem.

9. What are the pros and cons of shared decision making?

A succinct discussion of the pros and cons concerning shared decision making is contained in a paper entitled "The Strengths and Weaknesses of Shared Decision Making." A copy of this paper is available from Dr. Raymond G. Melton, Director, National Cluster Coordination Center, 2418 Hatton Street, Sarasota, Florida 33577.

10. Don't administrators have special duties to get the information needed for decision making?

It is our opinion that administrators should play a key role in providing relevant data to shared decision making groups. Administrators, because of their training, should have greater access to relevant data than do many teachers, parents, children and community members. Access to information may, however, cause the principal to be placed in a difficult position. He may have difficulty in trying to determine what information he should provide when asked, without being asked, and what is the best way to share information that is considered confidential or semi-confidential. Some decision making groups have elected to exclude the principal from certain discussions, others have asked the principal to be a full-time participant and still others have asked the principal to sit in a way similar to the Superintendent when he attends a Board meeting, (e.g., sometimes making recommendations or offering specific information upon which to base decisions).

11. Do all people have the capability to make decisions about everything?

Most people who are involved in shared decision making tend to suggest that people are capable of making decisions about nearly everything, while pointing out that not everyone wants to be involved in all decisions. Not everyone has appropriate data upon which to base a decision. Unravelling this rather complex situation can be very difficult. Ideas about ways to overcome the difficulty would greatly assist our efforts. Such ideas should be forwarded to: Dr. Raymond G. Melton, Director, National Cluster Coordination Center, 2418 Hatton Street, Sarasota, Florida 33577.

12. Can decisions be made by a group? Are there too many individuals to allow for this?

Decisions can be made by a group. We know from past history that groups can be quite large (i.e., a national election is a decision making situation). The old New England Town Forum provides another example of group involvement in decision making. Unfortunately, however, many schools lack the necessary time to form groups to make decisions. Schools are too often confronted with the task of effecting multiple decisions quickly. This may mean that the size of any specific decision making group needs to be kept limited so that efficient and rapid procedures for arriving at decisions can be established (twelve seems to be a reasonable size at this time).

13. How closely is practice approaching theory as it relates to shared decision making?

Based upon some empirical evidence gathered from a relatively small sample of Western schools, each of which was involved in EPDA differentiated staffing projects, it would appear that many schools may be allowing 65% of their decisions to be shared. Therefore, about two-thirds of the shared decision making situations seem to be working reasonably well. Whether additional experiments will yield the same level of success is uncertain.

Rationale for Shared Decision Making

14. Isn't one of the causes for shared decision making a matter of "poor" administrative practices?

No doubt, as one surveys the many administrative practices taking place in our schools, some of the shared decision making efforts may have grown out of "poor" administrative practices. Indeed, problems recognized in schools today may often be the result of insensitive administration and a reluctance to allow change. This is not, however, the only impetus for entering into shared decision making. A need for greater teacher involvement, more community participation or more democratic procedures may underscore the decision of some schools to try shared decision making.

15. Should everyone affected by a decision be involved in making it?

This question is philosophical rather than derivative of current data. In practice, the feeling is that everyone affected by a decision should help make the decision. Some schools have espoused the notion that even if poor decisions are made, those who are affected by the decision should exercise their right to help make them. Some believe this is in keeping with the basic tenets of democratic society. We believe this view might be tempered by experimental evidence before total change responsibly can be advocated.

16. Can principals be committed to the position that making decisions is a right and not a privilege?

As indicated in the response to question #15 above, some principals believe that all people have the right, if not the privilege, to make decisions affecting their lives. Current data seems to favor this position.

Personality Characteristics and Institutional Values

1. How do you change new people so they can fit into the shared decision making system?

Presently we lack sufficient information as to precisely how we can change people so that they can better fit into the shared decision making system. In this regard one of the major problems may be the orientation of new faculty to past decisions and their resulting operational procedures. Often new people must go through many of the same kinds of training exercises needed by the initial group. Thus, if new personalities join the school staff, it may be wise to administer a variety of instruments (see concern #2 in the Shared Decision Making Matrix, Personality Characteristics and Institutional Values, which is available from Dr. Raymond G. Melton, Director, National Cluster Center, 2418 Hatton Street, Sarasota, Florida 33577, which may be used to ascertain the relative "openness" or "closedness" of personalities.) Empirical evidence suggests that the more open the person, the greater the likelihood that he or she will profit from and contribute to shared decision making.

2. How does a staff insure that a shared decision making process is continued even when the administration changes?

There are relatively few examples of school districts where administrators have come into the school system after shared decision making has been fully implemented. Unfortunately, in cases where administrators have changed, there seemed to be no single procedure for determining, a priori, whether the administrator will support shared decision making. There exists a few instances where administrators have espoused their conviction to support shared decision making, and have subsequently failed to match their practice with espoused theory. These same experiences have occurred with teachers, children and parents.

3. What is the relationship between the formal decision making process and the informal process and is it based on trust and open communication?

It is difficult at this time to specify the exact relationship between formal and informal decision making groups. Empirical data suggest that the more responsive the formal decision making group is to the needs of the clientele, the less need there is for an informal system.

However, anyone truly interested, concerned, and involved with shared decision making should realize that an informal communication and decision making group exists almost without exception. The potential power of those involved with both formal and informal aspects of the decision making process must be considered with regard to all major decisions.

4. If the principal is accountable can he tolerate shared decision making?

A significant problem under the conditions of shared decision making is the position in which principals find themselves relative to the Superintendent and the Board of Education. It is reasonable that those who are held ultimately accountable should be responsible because of their own actions rather than the actions of others.

5. Can all principals give up power?

It is unlikely that all principals can "give up" or share power. Admitting that human nature is highly complex, both research and empirical evidence suggests that some individuals are nearly totally incapable of changing their learned behavior patterns to a significant degree. Clearly, some changes can be made; however, the longer the patterns have been ingrained, the less likely that these behaviors can be altered. The answer to this question, therefore, depends in part upon what behavioral evidence will be accepted for determining whether shared decision making will be able to function properly.

6. Can shared decision making be a reality--the concept of sharing accountability is important; how can it be accomplished without a sham being made of the concept?

Shared decision making can be a reality. Like other departures from more traditional techniques, it requires some expenditure of staff time and effort to be achieved. One serious problem is when shared decision making is the label for a controlled, non-autonomous faculty group which has been assembled to merely ratify administrators' decisions. This situation can disillusion and delude people which in turn can alienate them from future, genuine efforts to alter decision making processes in a school.

Personality Characteristics and Institutional Values

7. Are people psychologically secure enough to be involved in shared decision making?

Yes, some people are. Such people are often those who are willing to take reasonable risks, who are in the vanguard of change, and who have learned the requisite communication and interpersonal skills. Not only are these people secure, they also are known to be practical, realistic and reasonably intelligent.

8. How can an institution move toward shared decision making?

Study, training, and a majority-commitment to the decision sharing process is necessary in the beginning. Prior to implementation, there should be agreement as to acceptable evidence to signify success. Clear delineations of the responsibilities necessary for accepting progress toward shared decision making and for determining what processes or procedures should be modified as the group moves toward its desire goal should be included in such evidence.

9. When is the best time to move toward shared decision making--when a new principal arrives?

We have inconclusive evidence at this time; however, to determine when the "best" time is to move toward shared decision making one should keep in mind that the process involves major changes. It is unlikely, therefore, that the best time would be at the arrival of a new principal. Such situations are already marked by higher levels of change. Generally, a new principal has a great deal to learn in a relatively short period of time about operations of the school, personalities of the individuals at the school, etc. Because of these existing complexities, it seems reasonable that undertaking a separate process at the very outset would further complicate matters.

10. If you are changing the norms of the institution, what is the strategy? How do you keep it from backfiring?

There are no sure-fire, clear-cut steps which an institution can use in moving toward new norms, values, etc. Past experience has shown that some schools have participated in training sessions whereby they begin by (1) identifying individual values, then (2) determining discrepancies between their values and the institutional values, then (3) planning for change upon this analytic base. We have insufficient information at this time, however, to indicate how this procedure might be made more reliable; moreover, there is some evidence to support the contention that some schools may find it fairly easy to agree, philosophically, with a change idea. When staffs begin to put this philosophy into practice, however, individuals can differ on the original assumptions which may not have been fully understood or communicated. Perhaps an emphasis on complete communications is critical to all change processes.

11. How do you know when the local administrator is clear about what his goals are for shared decision making?

At this time there is no way, in advance, that people can determine the "real goals" of the local administrator relative to shared decision making. Indeed, if trust has not been sufficiently developed between the decision making group and administration, reasonable doubt exists that the process can be potentially successful. Naturally, the administrator may demonstrate through his practice belief in and support of shared decision making. One way in which this is demonstrated is when both he and members of the decision making group agree on the criteria for assessing his behavior. The criteria can then help to determine if the implementation process is successful.

12. How does one know if the principal has adequate knowledge of the techniques needed for shared decision making?

To determine when an administrator is "ready" to engage in shared decision making will require sophisticated evaluation techniques. Such techniques are not currently available. In addition, those who have been involved over the past four or five years recognize they must continue to modify and improve their own processes so that final indicators may be impossible to determine. Determining when an individual and/or a group is ready to engage in shared decision making may be a "moot" point. Information about people who may assist in assessment processes is available from Dr. Raymond G. Melton, Director, National Cluster Coordination Center, 2418 Hatton Street, Sarasota, Florida 33577

13. How can the readiness of all the various people to be involved in the process be assessed?

Personality Characteristics and Institutional Values

As with principals, such readiness can be elusive to traditional evaluation processes. See above Item #12.

14. Should staff be selected on the bases of their qualifications or interests in particular areas of shared decision making?

Criteria for selecting staff on the bases of their qualifications or interest in shared decision making have not been fully researched. Indications are that the more open the individual, the more he may work effectively in shared decision making. A number of instruments are available to help measure individual openness. Guidance in locating such materials may be obtained from professional testing companies and educational research centers throughout the country.

15. Should staff be selected on the bases of their personal characteristics and then mould the system to meet their characteristics?

It seems reasonable, based upon empirical information from selected schools involved in shared decision making, that personality characteristics are a very important component of staff selection. Once the individuals have been selected, however, the system should be designed to serve their interests rather than vice versa. This ideal does not often occur so that modifications in both the system and the individuals involved is common.

16. How is openness to help people look at themselves established?

There is a tendency in educators to devise ways for changing others before determining ways for self change. Thus, it has been difficult to encourage some of the changes which are basic to shared decision group cooperation. Some schools have found it beneficial to have each individual clarify his/her own values (privately) and then to compare their own values with the values of the educational institution to locate obvious discrepancies.

17. What can be done about people who block the shared decision making process, i.e., (1) people who have decision making authority but are unwilling to share it with others, and (2) people who give lip service to the process but don't really support it?

Personality Characteristics and Institutional Values

Empirical evidence tends to support some steps to be taken with people who are initially unwilling to accept shared decision making because of their own level in the hierarchy of the organization. It appears that a superintendent is often much more reluctant to change than is a student or a teacher. (Personal and legal factors are undoubtedly important here). Sometimes individuals fail to comply with operating procedures because they are ignorant of the procedures. Some people make errors of omission quite inadvertently. Such problems often can be handled quickly through rapid, open feedback communications. On the other hand, confrontation tactics sometimes produce the best results with people who tend to give lip-service to shared decision making while "reserving" much hierarchical power over decisions.

18. What are the changing kinds of trust in the group when new members come in?

Groups go through a series of changes as trust is being developed. When group members begin to feel that confrontations can be based upon substantive issues rather than upon individual personality differences, then the power of a group may begin to grow tremendously. Two major problems may, however, remain. One is the "in-group - out-group syndrome" whereby the members of a decision making group get progressively close-knit and the people left outside feel as if they are not part of the action. This is a time when informal decision making powers have become inordinately strong. The second problem has to do with the changes in the personality composition of the group. When new members join the group the group may take considerable time to allow the new members acceptance (and this often happens at the very time the member is trying to learn both formal and informal operating procedures). We know relatively little about the problems in detail, except that they exist and that attention must be given each of the problems as it occurs.

19. How long does it take for a decision making group to reach a reasonable level of competency?

No specific time can be counted on for a decision making group to reach its optimum level of operation. Some schools operating for five years have realized that their groups are functional but they have not met the requisite level of their own expectations. Research literature offers some help in that it indicates that some groups can be established in a relatively short period of time under specific experimental conditions; however, these conditions occur rarely, if ever, in most public school settings. Interpersonal support and an atmosphere of trust seem to be key elements in the establishment of effective working groups.

20. How can confidence in a group process be established?

Probably the best way to affirm confidence in a group is by demonstrating that their decisions can be implemented. Too often groups express the feeling that their efforts and output are insignificant and go unimplemented. It may be a good idea for School Districts to provide some sort of recognition to decision making groups as they embark on largely uncharted paths where the trail can often be obscure and tedious.

21. Should participants be required to become involved or should participation be strictly voluntary?

From existing information, it seems unrealistic to expect that required participation can succeed. An Appropriateness of Decision Making training package has been useful in some schools in determining some of the areas in which individuals in a group may have special interest and expertise. The Appropriateness of Decision Making training package is available from Dr. Raymond G. Melton, Director, National Cluster Coordination Center, 2418 Hatton Street, Sarasota, Florida 33577.

22. How does the role of the administrator change when decision making is decentralized?

Perhaps the greatest change in the role of an administrator is his movement away from traditional role behavior toward the new role of "school climate leader." Such a role requires that he know about communication processes, how decisions affect various people and about the legal aspects of decisions. The administrator must become a better listener and must be able to determine the kinds of data needed by the decision-making group. His role becomes that of a facilitator for action.

23. What are the problems with professional space?

Professional space may be synonymous with a kind of "territorial rights." In traditional organizations, territorial rights are often clearly delineated. When teachers or students begin to share in decisions, they may appear to step beyond the usual boundaries established by traditional administrators. After direct confrontations with such trespasses, new understandings, however less clearly demarcated, may be established. The process can be equally frustrating to all those involved.

24. Do participants represent (a) a group of people or (b) themselves or (c) the total school and its needs or (d) a department or other parochial interest?

Members of the decision making group should represent the total school: that is, they should be concerned about children and the instructional program. This commitment, however, may fail to occur until the group gains sufficient trust in its own operation. Where small groups are allowed to be very closed, individual or parochial interests often prevail.

25. How does the administrator keep others from thinking the "kids" or the "teachers" are running the school rather than the principal?

The general public, the Board, and the Superintendent have traditionally looked to the principal for leadership in many areas (be they instruction, discipline, establishing administrative practices) failing to realize that the emphasis of power can shift in a responsible manner. The principal must, therefore, attempt to re-educate many people in terms of the efficacy of shared decision making. Then the shift can be made over time from principal as sole leader to the group basis for leadership. Obviously, a principal must be a secure individual with good rapport if he is to manage this challenging set of basic changes.

Models for Shared Decision Making

1. How should participants get on the shared decision making body?

There does not appear to be a set pattern for getting people to serve on shared decision making groups; for example, in some schools the members are appointed, in others they are elected, in others they volunteer, and in still others some variety of these procedures is used. Careful assessment of which system works best has not yet been determined; however, the elected representatives approach has some strong advocates.

2. Should parents, children, and non-certificated staff members be involved?

Many schools agree that parents, children, non-certificated staff members, teachers and members of the community should be part of the decision making group. At this point, however, many schools believe that they have not moved far enough in the operationalizing of shared decision making to include other than teachers. In some notable instances, there are non-teacher members in the decision making group, and these people have become a real asset to the group.

3. How are procedures for functioning established?

Procedures are frequently established prior to beginning shared decision making activities. After participation in workshops designed to establish procedures, a proposal is written to be ratified by all members of the educational community.

4. Who should be the chairperson for the decision making group?

The chairperson may be appointed, drafted or elected, in accordance with the decision making group's plan. Initial plans, begun by an administrator and interested teachers, should include procedures for installing a chairperson.

5. Should all members of the decision making group be involved in all decisions?

The evidence available indicates that not all of the decision making group members need to be involved in all decisions. In this connection, perhaps one of the most difficult problems for decision making groups to overcome is that of finding the appropriate areas for decision making for different members.

Models for Shared Decision Making

6. How can a Board of Education be helped to feel a commitment to shared decision making?

Apparently many Boards of Education believe some of their powers may be usurped when decision making is decentralized to the local schools; therefore, procedures for shared decision making might best be reviewed and ratified by the Board of Education to create a more supportive setting for the program.

7. How can the responsibility and accountability for decisions be legally shared by the faculty (or school governing council) as well as be entrusted to the hands of the principal alone?

This problem remains to be resolved as legal opinions differ widely on this point.

8. What decision making models work most effectively?

We have progressed to the point where we can begin to identify some characteristics about decision making models which tend to work more efficiently and effectively than others. Models having clear procedures for getting ideas into the decision making group, having procedures whereby the group can determine its jurisdiction over the specific items, having the decision making group specify definite communication channels, and having ways of making certain there is a review loop in the decision making process tend to work more efficiently and effectively.

9. Is there research information about which decision making models work most efficiently?

The research information tends to be based upon tightly controlled experimental situations so that the findings are not always applicable in school settings. Research information tentatively indicates that decision making groups should probably not be much larger than 12 members, that pre-determined agendas should be available to all, that discussion should be limited (within reason), and that specified monitoring procedures should be established to increase accountability and decision responsibility.

10. Should decision making bodies be flexible as to size, membership, etc., depending on the type of decision to be made?

Decision making bodies which seem to operate most efficiently and effectively generally have one group of a consistent size and membership but may expand or reduce the number of participants depending upon the nature (i.e. scale, scope, size) of the decision being made. Additional information about this topic is needed.

11. Is it true that cutback decisions are more difficult to make than expansion decisions? (e.g., how to cut back on expenditures rather than how to spend more)

From all the information we have available at this time, it does appear that making a cutback decision is more difficult than making a decision about expansion.

12. Are informal decisions made outside the model?

Without doubt, informal decisions are made outside of the decision making model. These decisions may be overt, or they may be covert. Intentionally or unintentionally, decisions are sometimes made outside of the decision model. Such decisions can be devastating and care should be taken to reduce their number to a minimum.

13. Can a workable decision making model be established that will not split the group?

Yes, workable decision making models can be designed that will not split the group. One tactic is to eliminate "winners or losers" in a decision situation, thus encouraging trust within the group.

14. Do some people reject participating because of pressures of time?

Certainly, some people may reject participating in decision making because of the pressures of time. A workable decision making model must take into account individual differences in the ability to manage time.

15. Is it legitimate for people to want someone else to make decisions for them?

Some people prefer to be told what to do rather than to make decisions on their own. While this constitutes a problem to decision making groups, much of this problem can be reduced when appropriate areas of decision making are established.

16. How can people not on the decision making body feed information into the system for action?

Procedures for feeding information into the system must be established where it is impossible to have a decision making group large enough for all interested members to participate. Some schools accomplish this by written communication or by inviting interested persons to present their case verbally. In any event, the models which seem to work more effectively and efficiently are those in which any person may not only present a problem, but may assume responsibility for suggesting a solution.

17. Should there be standing or ad hoc committees which are supplemental to the main decision making body?

Many early models of decision making worked effectively with both standing and ad hoc committees. Apparently moving away from standing committees to ad hoc or "one-shot committees" is currently the rule. This may be because some of the standing committees met for the sake of meeting rather than to solve specific problems. Ad hoc committees have the advantage of being task oriented and can frequently accomplish more in less time.

18. How does the decision making body gather sufficient data on which to base decisions?

Because many decisions in school are based upon fiscal matters, problem solving can be a complex picture with ever changing economic consequences. Superintendents, Boards of Education, and Principals have historically experienced this difficult problem; thus, shared decision making groups may expect similar levels of difficulty. Of course the better informed the decision makers are, the higher the probability that they can design successful decisions regardless of problem complexity.

19. How can problems be dealt with efficiently?

There are, perhaps, three guidelines which can be useful: (1) establish an agenda, (2) establish a set time limit for discussion, and (3) realize that all the facts can never be obtained for a given decision (i.e., that some level of uncertainty is present in nearly all important decisions).

20. How can a decision making group identify the scope and/or area of freedom within which a decision can be made?

This may depend upon legal ramifications established for the Board of Education and the degree of decentralization permitted by the Superintendent and/or Principal. Actually, most frequently the problem of determining the areas of appropriateness for decision making for the group is a greater question.

21. Should the principal or others have veto power over decisions made by the decision making group?

This matter is handled differently in different schools with some Principals insisting on the right to veto power while others choose never to veto a staff decision. Often principals may wish to forward a minority report to the Board of Education and/or to the Superintendent.

22. How often should the decision making group meet?

After the embryonic stages the number of times meetings are held is often drastically reduced. For example, some schools meet no more than once a month. However, other schools have found they must meet 2 or 3 times a week until they have ironed out the bugs in the system.

23. How are priorities for decision making established?

Efficient and effective decision making models state a procedure for determination of priorities. Force field analysis is a workable technique for problems which need to be dealt with immediately; other techniques are included in the document entitled "Problem Solving and Decision Making Processes".

24. How does the principal stay out of a "director's" or "chairperson's" position? .

Principals may have a difficult time staying out of the key leadership positions when they interact with the decision making group. This may be because they have more information than the individuals within the group. Perhaps some activities should be handled by the principal if he is knowledgeable and competent in dealing with them; however, to generalize his expertise in all decision making areas would usually be a mistake. Certainly the English department chairperson may be the most knowledgeable person to determine what mini-courses should be included under the rubric of "English", while decisions about remedial reading might be best made by a qualified Miller-Unruh teacher, etc.

25. Should decision makers implement as well as determine policy and procedures?

Decision making groups must concern themselves with problems of implementation as well as problems of designing policy and procedures. Unfortunately, ample evidence exists which indicates that groups focus on policy rather than implementation, resulting in a number of schools where decisions become "paper" decisions.

26. Should decisions be made on the basis of majority vote?

Few of the schools will accept decisions based upon simple majority voting. Many have established a two-thirds to three-fourths positive vote for a decision to be carried. This is probably based upon the realization that a larger number of people must favor a decision if the decision is to survive and not be sabotaged.

27. Is co-leadership possible, e.g., parent leader and student leader?

Yes, if procedures are carefully defined. This technique needs to be further explored.

28. What is the critical size of the decision making group?

As indicated elsewhere, twelve or less seems to work best.

29. Should there be both voting and non-voting members in attendance at the decision making sessions?

This appears to be a good arrangement in many groups. At least, on the basis of empirical information, this is the case with most models at the present time. This model may be analagous to the Board of Education wherein members of the audience have an opportunity to present their opinions prior to a vote being taken.

30. How can one vote on a matter and maintain personal anonymity?

Most decision making models make no effort to establish personal anonymity for vote casting. In fact, periodically publishing the voting record of individuals is a technique adopted by several schools.

31. How are new members oriented to the decision making process--even if they are simply new staff members and are not new members to the decision making body?

The orientation of new staff members to the decision making procedure, as well as post decisions which have been made, requires considerable time and attention. By preparing a synopsis of decisions which have been made, new members can be quickly oriented to the group. This synopsis serves several useful purposes to the decision making group.

32. How can school board members be encouraged not to participate in the local decision making groups?

It would appear that School Board members, as well as all other resource people available in the total school community, should be available to provide information when called upon by the decision making group. As non-voting observers, clear roles may be established by stated agreement, thus avoiding overlapping jurisdictions, etc.

Models for Shared Decision Making

33. How can school personnel be organized and trained for shared decision making?

The first systematic training program has been under development through the National Center Cluster for the Education Professions Development Act in Sarasota, Florida. Information about the elements in this program is available from Dr. Raymond G. Melton, Director, National Cluster Coordination Center, 2418 Hatton Street, Sarasota, Florida 33577.

Location and Appropriateness of Decision Making Responsibility

1. Is there an entire body of administrative detail that principals should handle carte blanche?

Principals are held legally responsible for certain aspects of the operation of schools as outlined in the state education code. It is surprising, however, how few areas are specified in the code and how many alternatives exist for group decision making.

2. What are the kinds of things that decision making groups should do?

There is no definite "set of things" which a decision making group should do or should not do. Areas of decision making vary greatly in those schools attempting the process. Perhaps the best response to this question is to refer the reader to the "Appropriateness for Shared Decision Making" training package available from National Cluster Coordination Center, Dr. Raymond G. Melton, Director, 2418 Hatton Street, Sarasota, Florida 33577.

3. What is the difference between rendering an opinion and making a decision?

There is a considerable difference between the concepts of "rendering an opinion" and making a decision. Where a superior retains veto power, the decision making group may be simply rendering an opinion; however, where no administrator has such power to intervene or substantively modify a decision, decision making is not mere advice. Most models provide for exercising either option, particularly when an area of discussion may fall within the legal parameters established for the Board of Education or a district administrator.

4. How does the decision making group determine whether the issue is one that should be dealt with by the group?

Many models (after the individual group members become knowledgeable about their roles and procedures) have routines whereby issues are reviewed by the decision makers to operationally determine if they should, in fact, render a decision about it. (This review often takes the form of analysis, research and discussion prior to attempting to accept or reject an issue.) As a group becomes solidified and experienced, there is a tendency to deal more specifically with substantive issues rather than with trivia.

5. How does the representative on the decision making body deal with issues where there may be a conflict of interest?

Undoubtedly nearly everyone in a decision-making group will at one time or another face the problem of "conflict of interest." When individuals in the group begin to deal with problems as a matter of having total school impact and significance, the conflict of interest problem is reduced. Parochial and narrow views may be greater problems than that of "conflict of interest."

6. How does the decision making group avoid "bitch" sessions?

Some decision making groups periodically degenerate into "bitch" sessions: a strong chairman who sticks with the agenda can avoid too many of these sessions. If it continues to occur, however, it may mean that the group needs special work with an outside consultant to delineate responsibilities, improve communication, and develop confrontation techniques which are more effective.

7. How does the decision making body handle confidential personnel matters?

From the empirical information reviewed, it appears that most schools have not found ways to deal with "confidential personnel matters." If this is an area which is to be a part of the shared decision making responsibility, then procedures must be carefully identified and checked. Unfortunately, insufficient information is available at this time to offer a good set of guidelines. Peer respect and trust seem to be important aspects of these responsibilities.

8. How does the decision making body learn to work with substantive issues rather than trivia?

Location and Appropriateness of Decision Making Responsibility

The answers to this question have been included as parts of the above answers: in general, there are two basic actions which need to be taken: (1) the decision making group must determine what issues it will address and what issues will be redirected and (2) time limits need to be established for those issues to be treated. From experience, it appears that decision making groups learn to face more substantive issues as a function of their confidence in their work.

9. Are the most effective and efficient leaders democratic decision makers

There is strong evidence that relatively few effective and efficient leaders are democratic decision makers. While most good leaders agree that shared decisions are often more powerful than individual decisions, many leaders have become disenchanted with the slower pace of group actions. One major difficulty facing most schools is how to help the individual innovative leader to not be stifled by the decision making process while at the same time making certain that all input is fully considered. While these conclusions may be an oversimplification, we have seen little contrary evidence. Doubtlessly, this matter requires much thoughtful analysis and consideration.

10. How does the decision making group really identify the problems for which a decision is needed?

Many times decision making groups deal with the "effects" of problems rather than with the "causes" of problems. The force field technique is one strategy which can be used by a shared decision making group to assist them as they attempt to identify causal problems.

11. Is the formal circle of influence always congruent with the informal circle of influence?

Clearly, the formal circle or span of influence is not always congruent with the informal circle or span of influence. As mentioned in the information personality variables*, it is important for decision making groups to understand the origin of various influences affecting decisions.

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*See Personality Characteristics and Institutional Values, Marin EPDA, Shared Decision Making Study, 1972-73

Problem Solving and Decision Making Processes

1. How can one avoid watering down a solution to the point where it isn't meaningful?

When decision making groups first begin, there is a tendency to "water down" or make less powerful decisions for fear of causing ill feelings. As the group gains confidence, and, as they begin to attack more substantive issues, more meaningful decisions may be made. Time seems an important variable in the consideration of this problem.

2. How can problems be solved without having a "winner" and/or a "loser?"

Until the group gains confidence and trust in its individual members, the problem of a "winner" and/or a "loser" persists. This is frequently because the individuals consider the problems to be their own rather than matters for the attention of the whole school. The force field analysis approach is one technique which can be employed beneficially. Force field analysis helps to identify basic causes of problems, to separate causes from effects and to rank solutions in priority order.

3. How can the decision making group come to understand the mechanics of decision making?

Decision making groups "practice and learn" the appropriate mechanics which apply to their decision making model. This does require specific training and opportunities to simulate and thus test the procedures prior to implementation. Perhaps one of the major difficulties faced by some groups is the problem of getting into the actual decision situations prior to field testing the problem solving techniques.

4. How does the decision making group come to make decisions and then follow the decisions with implementation strategies?

The decision making group must consider implementation strategies while considering specific decisions. This may require a second consideration of a problem prior to making a final decision. Such second considerations should relate to the actual steps to be taken in carrying out a decision. This activity may be undertaken by an _ad hoc_ committee vested with the purpose of designing implementation strategies. When appropriate implementation strategies have been defined, review by the total decision making group should occur prior to initiating the decision.

5. How does the decision making group move from the superficial to the real problems?

Decision making groups move from superficial to real problems when they have gained confidence and trust in each other, when they have learned requisite decision making skills, when they have an acceptable decision making process or model, and when they see their decisions as having importance. This may happen within a year or it may take as long as two or three years!

6. What are the different ways to generate solutions to problems?

There are at least three skills which we feel are useful to decision making groups in generating solutions to problems: (1) brainstorming techniques, (2) skill in Delphi problem solving techniques, and (3) skill in the force field analysis technique. Other techniques are under development which may prove to be equally helpful to future groups.

7. How does the decision making group learn listening skills--necessary for considering and reflecting on what others meant when they said something?

Most individuals within decision making groups must learn listening skills as such skills are apparently not inherent. Because this is the case, it may be wise to use outside consultants prepared to develop "listening" skills in others. Such training programs and consultants make up the list of human resources listed in the overview package of this Shared Decision Making series.

8. Feelings are important; how can they be taken into account when decisions are made?

Problem Solving and Decision Making Processes

Personal feelings are extremely important when decisions are being made. Our information at this time is minimal relative to ways in which individual feelings can be safeguarded when decisions are being generated. Special care should be the rule in all situations where human feelings and emotions are likely to become involved.

9. How do decision making groups learn about communication skills, forcefield analysis, Delphi techniques and other approaches to problem solving?

Decision making groups may learn about communication skills, force field analysis,Delphi techniques and other approaches to problem solving by contacting Dr. Raymond G. Melton, Director, National Cluster Coordination Center, 2418 Hatton Street, Sarasota, Florida 35577 for further information.

10. How does the decision making group avoid the potential contest to determine who is right rather than what is right for children?

See response to question number 2.

11. How do individual members develop objectivity skills and openness to change their opinions?

See response to question number 9 above.

Communicating Results of Decisions

1. How is the image of a decision making group enhanced?

Information from schools using shared decision making suggests the vital importance of support for the decision making group. Because these individuals are frequently involved in experimental approaches, it seems doubly important that they be recognized for their time and efforts. Using well planned techniques for positive public relations is essential. While the techniques may range from faculty bulletin board notices to newspaper descriptions, communication and recognition should be maintained.

2. How can those affected by decisions have respect for the decision making group?

Two ways of engendering respect for the decision making body have been found to be successful: (1) it helps to have the recipients of decisions visit a decision making session and observe the sincerity and degree of commitment with which the group works, and (2) announcements about decisions can be made which indicate not only the results of the decisions but the "feelings" which were part of the decision process. These measures help to avoid the skepticism held by some who believe the decision making body has cloistered itself away in an ivory tower and handed down decisions for others to follow without question.

3. How can all affected have trust and respect for their colleagues?

Trust and respect can only emerge over time. It is helpful if people believe that the decision making group is acting in good faith and with good intentions. As in other human endeavors, some errors in judgment are bound to occur, but this is one aspect common to any democracy. Total trust and respect, in all likelihood, will not be achieved; however, such a goal should remain part of the efforts.

4. How can the difficulty between the "in" group and the "out" group be avoided, or at least reduced?

Communicating Results of Decisions

It is likely that there will be some difficulty between the "in" group (decision makers) and the "out" group (those affected by decisions). Competence and trust in the decision makers is imperative to avoiding or reducing schisms between "in" and "out" groups. Opportunities to socialize in informal settings may help if such socialization can take place away from the school (i.e., on "neutral territory").

5. How can results of decisions be communicated to various audiences?

At the present time a "best method" for transmitting decisions to various audiences has not been substantiated. Evidence suggests that the age-old technique of communication via memos in teachers' mailboxes is probably least effective. Use of the public address system and/or announcements on faculty bulletin boards appear to be nearly as ineffective. Perhaps a better method is to have decision making group members communicate directly with the intended audiences. This can be a time-consuming task and not all decision group members are equally enthusiastic and persistent in clarifying the messages to their audiences.

6. How can schools participating in shared decision making ward off the "stones" that are sometimes thrown by other schools in the same district that are not participating in change?

Many of the difficulties of educators come from within (other educators within the same district who feel negative about the "change" approach for any of several reasons). This is often troublesome to those committed to responsible change. In recognizing the problem we are not able to suggest a solution strategy which has a high prediction of success at this point. Many individuals are at work on this problem so we may see ideas in future months.

7. What are the kinds of rewards available to the decision making group?

Possibilities include attendance at professional conferences, publication of results in professional journals, and fiscal compensation. Additional ideas need to be generated in terms of local meanings and values.

Communicating Results of Decisions

8. How can public relations be provided for the decision makers?

Decision makers need a positive image in the same way that other agents of change need wide-based support. If there is a public relations expert in the district, one assignment might include work on behalf of the decision making group. As with other groups it is often difficult to "blow their own horn" while retaining public respect and support.

9. What vehicles of communication are available for conveying information up and down the ladder?

There is little information at present which in generally helpful concerning the conveying of information up and down the communication channels. This item is related to item #5 above.

10. What responsibility does the decision making group have to provide feedback to various standing and/or ad hoc committees functioning within the school?

The decision making group has a major responsibility not only to provide feedback to various standing and ad hoc committees, but also to meet with them regularly and offer any information necessary or requested. Some schools have found they must assign a member of the decision making body to work with the committees in order to fully ensure feedback will occur.

11. How are those committed to the process rewarded so they will continue in the adversity of those who claim to want involvement but who don't carry out their tasks?

Rewards may be associated with specific task assignments so that inequities are kept in bounds. This is a difficult thing to arrange and requires giving special attention to the problem. See item #7 above.

12. How can the feelings that went into making a decision be communicated, as well as the results of a decision?

See #5 above.

Accountability and Responsibility

1. How can an individual within a school carry out or implement a procedure after a decision has been determined?

Clearly, if decisions are to achieve their full power, individuals not in the decision making group must help develop plans for implementing decisions. A procedure to insure this added measure of commitment is important. Some schools have initiated such procedures whereby individual members of the staff are asked to give specific feedback on how they might support the decision. A special training program, available from Dr. Raymond G. Melton, Director, National Cluster Coordination Center, 2418 Hatton Street, Sarasota, Florida 33577, may be requested if additional information about this problem is needed.

2. What kind of monitoring system should be established to help carry out decisions?

From our research it is apparent that a monitoring system is both necessary and desirable to insure that decisions will be implemented. Such a monitoring system might include an ad hoc committee specifically charged with responsibility for assessing whether or not individuals support a decision once it has been made. Subsequently, the _ad hoc_ committee might evaluate consequences of the decision to determine if the decision should be modified. It is important that the evaluation distinguish between bad decisions and those which have been sabotaged by individuals' actions.

3. What should be the consequences for those who don't carry out a decision?

Few schools have dealt with this problem to date, and specific, clear guidelines are not yet available. Often, the lack of support for decisions seems to stem from entrenched educators (on tenure), thus presenting a difficult obstacle. Perhaps peer evaluations or _ad hoc_ monitoring groups can help in this regard; however, the writers know so little about this matter we are, as yet, unable to offer definite procedures and advice.

Accountability and Responsibility

4. What appeal procedures should be established for individuals who don't agree with a decision once it has been made?

There should always be procedures for individuals who disagree with any decision. Generally, this procedure should involve a "review loop" in the decision making model, that is a decision making model with a built-in interval after which all decisions must be reviewed. This can assist individuals who disagree with a decision by allowing for time until a reasonable review is possible.

5. How does the decision making body get others to accept the responsibility for carrying out decisions?

A major obstacle in schools where shared decision making is in operation entails getting "others" to accept responsibility and accountability for carrying out the decisions. Techniques to assist in dealing with this important problem include open communication, observations by "others" at decision making sessions, communications systems which stress carrying the feelings as well as the end-results of a decision, and special monitoring systems, i.e., specific commitment statements and an *ad hoc* monitoring committee.

6. How are decisions evaluated for their consequences?

Some school districts have found that it is possible to evaluate consequences of decisions if individuals affected by those decisions will agree on the kind of evidence they will accept substantiating whether a decision has been good and/or bad. Usually, because a decision means different things to different audiences, it is critical that the group and/or committee charged with evaluation of decisions obtain from the various audiences criteria which are acceptable for evaluation. This can become a full-time responsibility, and to make it effective adequate time must be allocated.

Evaluating the Effectiveness and Efficiency of Shared Decision Making

1. Does shared decision making foster collegial relationships that are positive?

One would hope that an important by-product of shared decision making is the development of positive, collegial relationships. There appears to be conflicting evidence on the point, however. In some schools where shared decision making is espoused, there is a feeling on the part of staff members that real decisions are being made at higher levels of the echelon. Positive, collegial relationships can hardly exist under these conditions. In addition, some research evidence indicates that institutions may have tremendously positive relationships but with little accomplishment. Apparently some balance between interpersonal feelings and the accomplishment of desirable objectives is needed.

2. What effect does shared decision making have on the school climate?

Although not conclusive, some evidence indicates that the school climate is affected positively the longer a district uses the shared decision making approach. This may not mean that a linear improvement occurs; the climate may get worse before it gets better, but once the group learns the basic decision making skills the trend seems well defined and positive.

3. What kinds of negative behavior are those in shared decision making groups likely to encounter?

Shared decision making groups are likely to encounter a variety of negative behaviors probably coming from one of three sources: (1) interpersonal communication problems between members of the shared decision making group, (2) misunderstandings of the roles and functions by people outside the group, (3) real or imagined reactions of administrators in other sections of the district. Clear-cut solutions to the problems may be elusive, but some suggestions for getting at these difficulties are outlined in other portions of this index. It is best that participants in shared decision making groups be aware of such potential problems before undertaking their roles as decision makers.

4. In shared decision making, is the level of accomplishment expectation higher?

Expectations for accomplishment are much higher when shared decision making is implemented in a school. Many participants in shared decision making are naive about the complexities and consequences of their decisions. Because of this relatively high level of expectation, failure to achieve these levels may cause considerable anguish. This may not be entirely bad because the decision makers become more aware of forces acting upon administrators who typically must act in a more isolated context.

5. Does morale become lower the greater the latitude of decision making?

There is reason to believe morale is related to latitudes of decision making possibilities. Perhaps this is due to individuals needing to make decisions outside of their areas of interest, or perhaps it is because they spend inordinate amounts of time with minor decisions; whatever the reasons, research is needed in this area, although none is currently being attempted to our knowledge. Decision making, it must be remembered, is "power" and some individuals blossom with benevolent power while others retrench and retreat from the responsibility of having acted.

6. Are there some individuals who don't fit in a school where there is shared decision making?

Whatever the psychological factors, some people prefer to work in schools without shared decision making. Consistent with other sectors of the American society, a range of alternatives should be maintained and available. Individuals in the American tradition should have the opportunity to decide for themselves the type of system most consistent with their own life-styles.

7. Where does a decision making group identify outside consultant assistance if it is needed?

Consultants appear to fall into one of two categories: (1) those familiar with decision making theory, and (2) those who have been on the firing line themselves and are operationally familiar with such situations. Unfortunately, few consultants have expertise in both categories. Therefore, if consultants are to be employed, it is recommended that assistance be sought for specific problems, rather than global concerns.

8. How can a decision making group capitalize on the inherent in-district competencies of personnel?

School districts may find an abundance of competency in the district. Even if this is not the case, school districts are wise to train their people so that they can work with others in the district later. One way to identify talent within the district is to conduct a search by having staff members in a school identify specific skills available. When a district identifies real skills "at home", they can often capitalize on these resources.

9. How often should discussions on the strengths and weaknesses of the decision making model be held?

Many schools find that the use of standing committees to analyze the model (committees usually consisting of teachers and administrators) is helpful. It is important that this type of committee give attention to informal as well as formal happenings.

10. Is participation on the decision making body a job-description type of responsibility?

There are few current examples where teachers or administrators are provided extra compensation for participation on the shared decision making body. Participation in shared decision making has been, it seems, considered a right and a responsibility. An underlying philosophical principle associated with shared decision making is the idea that all staff members have the right to participate in decisions affecting their lives and that they have the responsibility to participate in all decision making. We suspect there is good reason to believe that teacher associations will push for fiscal support for teachers actively engaged as formal members of the decision making body.

11. What further delineation of the decision making variables is necessary?

The complex areas of shared decision making may be divided in many different ways. The matrix prepared for the National Cluster Center in Sarasota, Florida by the Marin EPDA Shared Decision Making Study is the format used for this series. The matrix provides an initial organization of the areas assumed under shared decision making for the purposes of this study. Operational definitions of the variables can be found in the Overview package for the series.

12. How does the decision making group continuously refine and improve the decision making process?

This may be accomplished through a built-in review process as described in "Decision Making Models".

13. Do people believe they are being manipulated when they are a part of the decision making process?

Sometimes; that is, some teachers believe decisions have been made elsewhere and they are actually only expected to rubber-stamp a previously made decision. One way to stay on top of such problems is to periodically administer questionnaires (to be answered anonymously) encouraging those affected by a decision and giving those involved as decision makers the opportunity to state their concerns. An instrument which may help with this purpose is available in a recent book written by Dr. Robert Fox entitled The School as a Social System. This book is available from the University of Michigan bookstore.

14. How do decision makers expand their areas of interest and competency?

Decision making groups can expand their interest and increase their competency as they acquire confidence about their role. In the training package entitled "Appropriateness of Decision Making" are some guidelines relative to this question.

15. How does the decision making group find time to get trained?

Unquestionably, when a school commits itself to shared decision making, it must also allow adequate "time" for training. Training time may be scheduled during the summer, on weekends, or during regular holiday periods. From current information it appears best to have a two or three day retreat where more intensive interpersonal activity can be held.

Evaluating the Effectiveness and Efficiency of Shared Decision Making

16. What are the criteria on which a decision making model can be evaluated?

Few educators can agree on the absolute criteria for evaluating shared decision making. A position paper has been prepared on this topic and is available from Dr. Raymond G. Melton, Director, National Cluster Coordination Center, 2418 Hatton Street, Sarasota, Florida 33577.

17. What is a reasonable amount of time to spend on maintenance of the group?

We have insufficient information at this time to know how much "time" must be invested in group maintenance. Some schools report that they invest from 40% to 70% of their meeting time on trivia. While these figures appear to be high, many schools are making efforts to reduce their percentage of time dealing with trivial issues, while recognizing the importance of certain levels of seemingly dysfunctional time.

18. How can administrators in other places in the school district be kept informed about the decision making approach?

It is important that administrators within the school district be appraised of program progress in terms of total district goals. Special care should be taken to present information in an open and straightforward fashion. Noting program strengths as well as weaknesses can disarm many potential critics and pessimists.

19. How do you handle requests for information from other people who are interested in shared decision making?

This is one of those matters where you are "damned if you do" and "damned if you don't". If a public relations member for the school district is available, this person may be able to prepare a descriptive brochure outlining shared decision making activities and answering in advance some common questions. Additional help may be provided by contacting Dr. Raymond G. Melton, Director, National Cluster Coordination Center, 2418 Hatton Street, Sarasota, Florida 33577.

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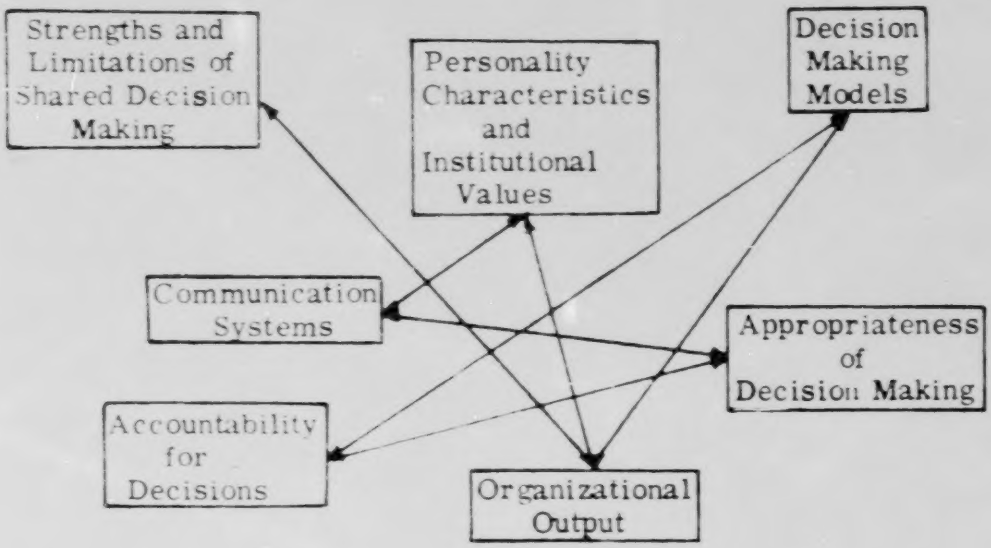
A. BACKGROUND OF THE PROJECT

The plans for the Marin Shared Decision Making Project called for the development of training manuals for use by faculty groups involved in or considering becoming involved with shared decision making. An estimation of the areas of chief concern to those already involved in some form of shared decision making was completed by means of a short survey of the eleven Western Cluster (EPDA) projects. The concerns expressed by practitioners from the eleven projects were organized into eight general categories which have provided the conceptual framework for the research and development effort resulting in the educational products now available.


Strengths and Limitations of Shared Decision Making
Personality Characteristics and Institutional Values
Decision Making Models
Communication Systems
Appropriateness of Decision Making
Accountability for Decisions
Organizational Output

The areas of concern are:

(1) The Strengths and Limitations of Shared Decision Making;

(2) Personality Characteristics and Institutional Values (and how these affect group decision processes);

(3) Decision Making Models (how to build them, what they should include, etc.);

(4) Appropriateness of Decision Making (essentially a "power" question);

(5) Group Problem Solving and Decision Making Processes (techniques and approaches which facilitate this activity);

(6) Communication Systems (how can decisions be more effectively communicated both within the group and to those outside the group);

(7) Accountability for Decisions (when decisions are more diffuse, who then stands as responsible for outcomes?), and:

(8) Organizational Output (assessing decision making effectiveness and efficiency - are group decisions more or less costly, more or less "good", etc.).

The selection of these eight areas was an expedient measure for trying to shed some light on a complex series of issues, and it is the feeling of the authors that these eight may not cover all the concerns being expressed in the field. However, each of these areas accounts for several of the expressed needs of groups operating or anticipating operating under conditions of shared decision making. It was, therefore, the plan to research each of the areas and evaluate existing materials to meet some of the expressed needs.

The process of reviewing over three hundred published articles, books, training manuals, and research reports resulted in an important finding: few of the areas outlined had relevant and sufficient training materials which would be adequate in responding to the specific needs of practitioners in shared decision making groups in public schools. That is, with the possible exception of communication systems, it seemed apparent that new training materials should be written relative to some areas and major revisions of existing materials in the other areas.

Another finding was significant; the research materials did address many of the critical areas identified, but the materials tended to suggest theories rather than providing useful techniques for dealing with each area of concern. This project effort was viewed as a possible way for creating prototype training materials which would generate practical results and useful feedback responses to ideas contained in the current research on decision making.

Our task became one of checking our findings with the practitioners (teachers and administrators) and then launching a package development effort to create training materials where vacuums existed, and to develop a format which would provide access for practitioners to the best available information located and/or prepared by the authors.

B. DESCRIPTION OF THE MATERIALS

The sets of materials are of two basic types:

(1) Workshop Manuals (leaders-participants or background readings-training guides)

(2) Discussion Papers (technical discussions or comments on the current "state-of-the art").

Where the materials are oriented to workshop activities, the emphasis has been on suggesting explicit experiences which address some important aspects of shared decision making. The workshop materials were not designed to respond to all or every aspect within each category of concern, and the authors urge others to add to our efforts by suggesting additional workshop experiences to augment these materials.

The discussion papers included in this series represent two important issues: the first is that these concerns are currently in a state of development with many uncertainties and differences of opinion that to suggest "training" in any one approach would presume tacit agreement with the supremacy of that approach (--a position which the authors are not proposing at this time) and, second is the belief that raising critical issues, however inconclusive, can serve as a means of stimulating additional research and development within this critical arena of participatory decision making in schools.

As suggested in the background portion of this overview, our approach to the rather all-encompassing area of shared decision making was to suggest a grid with eight specific areas of concern.

Chart 1 depicts each of the areas of concern which guided project personnel. In this chart, it should be noted that some of the "cells" have been developed more fully than others for a variety of reasons, including: project resource limitations, paucity of people with sufficient expertise, etc. Our efforts have remained those of responding to practitioners' questions by either creating or evaluating appropriate training and discussion materials. The chart has two dimensions: (1) the vertical dimension depicts the eight categories into which the process has been divided, and (2) the horizontal dimension (across the top of the paper) illustrates the types of materials available to users at the present time.

AREAS OF CONCERN

	Resources Available	Training Guides in Marin Shared Decision Making Package A	Practitioner's Questions B	Responses to Questions from Practitioners C	Organizational Development Materials and Programs D
1	STRENGTHS AND LIMITATIONS OF SHARED DECISION MAKING	Discussion Paper	16 Questions and Responses		BIBLIOGRAPHY
2	PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS & INSTITUTIONAL VALUES	Leader's Guide Participant's Guide	25 Questions and Responses		
3	DECISION MAKING MODELS	Discussion Guide	33 Questions and Responses		
4	APPROPRIATENESS OF DECISION MAKING	Leader's Guide Participant's Guide	11 Questions and Responses		
5	PROBLEM SOLVING & DECISION MAKING PROCESSES	Leaders' and Participants' Training Package	11 Questions and Responses		
6	COMMUNICATION SYSTEMS	Discussion Paper	12 Questions and Responses		
7	ACCOUNTABILITY AND RESPONSIBILITY	Leader's Guide Participant's Guide	6 Questions and Responses		
8	ORGANIZATIONAL OUTPUT	Discussion Paper	19 Questions and Responses		

A short description of the materials available in each of the eight areas of concern follows, including a short definition of the area, the training information and materials that are available in the training module, and selected questions which practitioners have raised regarding each area of concern. Responses to each of these questions are presented in the respective training module covering each area of concern.

I STRENGTHS AND LIMITATIONS OF SHARED DECISION MAKING:

A. Definition:

The potential advantages and disadvantages of shared decision making are reviewed so educators may develop and utilize appropriate decision making and problem solving techniques with a more realistic understanding of important variables affecting results. A balanced perspective of shared decision making is needed so that educators can be better prepared to deal with the many challenges inherent in the emerging areas of group problem solving and group decision making in public schools.

B. Contents and Description of the Materials:

This module presents a discussion paper on the strengths and limitations of shared decision making. The paper deals with issues affecting teachers, administrators, staff, students, and the community. Variables such as decision quality, information access, implementation factors, skill development, time constraints, vested interests, and other related contingencies are discussed.

Although the research evidence does not clearly establish the superiority of shared decision making processes over individual processes, the package suggests that participatory decision making has significant, documented potential and relevance which need to be explored seriously and considered by educators working in public schools.

The appendix to this document consists of several models suggested for conceptualizing important dimensions of shared decision making in work organizations. A Continuum of Leadership Behavior, Blake's "Managerial Grid," as well as models touching upon interpersonal relations, organizational "climate," and the school as a social system are presented.

Reading time for this document is approximately one hour. It is recommended that 1 - 3 hours should be devoted to discussing the implications of this introductory paper. The models in the appendix are designed to facilitate discussion and analysis of the concepts described.

C. Practitioners Questions

The following selected questions (and the issues covered in the module) have been raised by practitioners concerning this area:

Strengths and Limitations of Shared Decision Making

1. Are crises the major forces which cause the shared decision making groups to be formed?

2. Does shared decision making allow for more "risks" to be incorporated in the final decisions?

3. Does shared decision making prepare children for participatory action later in their lives?

4. Can an established procedure for shared decision making be carried on if the participants in the shared decision making group change?

5. Since the teacher is the key to learning, shouldn't the teacher have a role in decision making commensurate with the tasks in the classroom which he or she performs?

6. Does the decision making process "evolve" in response to total environment rather than to specifically identifiable forces?

7. What is the ultimate goal of shared decision making? Is it to involve staff? Or is it to get "better" decisions?

8. Under what conditions is shared decision making appropriate?

9. What are the pros and cons of shared decision making?

10. Don't administrators have special duties to get the information needed for decision making?

11. Do all people have the capability to make decisions about everything?

Strengths and Limitations of Shared Decision Making

12. Can decisions be made by a group? Are there too many individuals to allow for this?

13. How closely is practice approaching theory as it relates to shared decision making?

14. Isn't one of the causes for shared decision making a matter of "poor" administrative practices?

15. Should everyone affected by a decision be involved in making it?

16. Can principals be committed to the position that making decisions is a right and not a privilege?

II. PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS AND INSTITUTIONAL VALUES

A. Definition

This area encompasses psychological, behavioral, and sociological aspects of shared decision making, emphasizing such things as leadership characteristics of individuals, dominant values of cultures, human interaction components, as well as personal and group expectations.

B. Contents and Description of the Materials

A two-part set of workshop materials was produced for this area. The first section deals with background introductory reading materials, a diagnostic test, explanations of suggested test answers, practitioner questions with replies, and a post test. This section would be primarily of use to workshop leaders, administrators, etc.

The second section of workshop materials includes a discussion of personality characteristics, identification of personal values, and several workshop activities designed for meaningful staff involvement and participation. A detailed questionnaire for the staff to use in analyzing individual and school values is provided. Follow-up guides for constructive participant action are provided.

The authors suggest that the first section receive approximately one to two hours for reading and discussion, while the workshop takes approximately six hours to complete.

C. Practitioner's Questions

The following selected questions (and the issues covered in the module) have been raised by practitioners concerning this area:

Personality Characteristics and Institutional Values

1. How do you change new people so they can fit into the shared decision making system?

2. How does a staff insure that a shared decision making process is continued even when the administration changes?

3. What is the relationship between the formal decision making process and the informal process and is it based on trust and open communication?

4. If the principal is accountable can he tolerate shared decision making?

5. Can all principals give up power?

6. Can shared decision making be a reality--the concept of sharing accountability is important; how can it be accomplished without a sham being made of the concept?

7. Are people psychologically secure enough to be involved in shared decision making?

8. How can an institution move toward shared decision making?

9. When is the best time to move toward shared decision making--when a new principal arrives?

10. If you are changing the norms of the institution, what is the strategy? How do you keep it from backfiring?

11. How do you know when the local administrator is clear about what his goals are for shared decision making?

Personality Characteristics and Institutional Values

12. How does one know if the principal has adequate knowledge of the techniques needed for shared decision making?

13. How can the readiness of all the various people to be involved in the process be assessed?

14. Should staff be selected on the basis of their qualifications or interests in particular areas of shared decision making?

15. Should staff be selected on the basis of their personal characteristics and then mould the system to meet their characteristics?

16. How is openness to help people look at themselves established?

17. What can be done about people who block the shared decision making process, i.e., (1) people who have decision making authority but are unwilling to share it with others, and (2) people who give lip service to the process but don't really support it?

18. What are the changing kinds of trust in the group when new members come in?

19. How long does it take for a decision making group to reach a reasonable level of competency?

20. How can confidence in a group process be established?

21. Should participants be required to become involved or should participation be strictly voluntary?

22. How does the role of the administrator change when decision making is decentralized?

Personality Characteristics and Institutional Values

23. What are the problems with professional "space?"

24. Do participants represent (a) a group of people or (b) themselves or (c) the total school and its needs or (d) a department or other parochial interest?

25. How does the administrator keep others from thinking the "kids" or the "teachers" are running the school rather than the principal?

III. DECISION MAKING MODELS

A. Definition:

Procedures which different groups use for reaching decisions and the techniques for creating such systems are the primary concerns of this module.

B. Contents and Description of the Materials:

This workshop module has been designed for use with educators who anticipate taking part in a decision-making group.

The training objectives are:

1. To familiarize educators with three models of decision making,
2. To discuss critical factors to be considered in designing shared decision making models, and
3. To analyze the advantages and disadvantages of three decision making models observed in schools.

The package consists of five parts. Part I is an individual exercise, followed by Part II which presents reading material discussing different types and elements of decisions. Part III is a group exercise which utilizes the background reading as the basis for group discussion. Part IV discusses several factors to be considered in designing shared decision making models, including purposes, membership variables, operating procedures, implementation, and evaluation. Part V analyzes three models observed in schools (utilizing the materials in the module).

A workshop using the module should take approximately one 6-8 hour workshop day.

C. Practitioners Questions:

The following selected questions (and issues covered in the module) have been raised by practitioners concerning this area:

Decision Making Models

1. How should participants get on the shared decision making body?

2. Should parents, children, and non-certificated staff members be involved?

3. How are procedures for functioning established?

4. Who should be the chairperson for the decision making group?

5. Should all members of the decision making group be involved in all decisions?

6. How can a Board of Education be helped to feel a commitment to shared decision making?

7. How can the responsibility and accountability for decisions be legally shared by the faculty (or school governing council) as well as be entrusted to the hands of the principal alone?

8. What decision making models work most effectively?

9. Is there research information about which decision making models work most efficiently?

10. Should decision making bodies be flexible as to size, membership, etc., depending on the type of decision to be made?

11. Is it true that cutback decisions are more difficult to make than expansion decisions? (e.g., how to cut back on expenditures rather than how to spend more)

12. Are informal decisions made outside the model?

Decision Making Models

13. Can a workable decision making model be established that will not split the group?

14. Do some people reject participating because of pressures of time?

15. Is it legitimate for people to want someone else to make decisions for them?

16. How can people not on the decision making body feed information into the system for action?

17. Should there be standing or ad hoc committees which are supplemental to the main decision making body?

18. How does the decision making body gather sufficient data on which to base decisions?

19. How can problems be dealt with efficiently?

20. How can a decision making group identify the scope and/or area of freedom within which a decision can be made?

21. Should the principal or others have veto power over decisions made by the decision making group?

22. How often should the decision making group meet?

23. How are priorities for decision making established?

24. How does the principal stay out of a "director's" or "chairperson's" position?

Decision Making Models

25. Should decision makers implement as well as determine policy and procedures?

26. Should decisions be made on the basis of majority vote?

27. Is co-leadership possible, e.g., parent leader and student leader?

28. What is the critical size of the decision making group?

29. Should there be both voting and non-voting members in attendance at the decision making sessions?

30. How can one vote on a matter and maintain personal anonymity?

31. How are new members oriented to the decision making process--even if they are simply new staff members and are not new members to the decision making body?

32. How can school board members be encouraged not to participate in the local decision making groups?

33. How can school personnel be organized and trained for shared decision making?

IV. APPROPRIATENESS OF DECISION MAKING

A. Definition:

Interest in specific decisions seems to be based upon several factors: previous interests, expertise, significance or importance of the decision, proximity of issues to the individual, etc. The ways in which these interests can be identified, charted and used to maximum benefit are the sets of concerns in this area. The purpose is to establish "appropriate" decision making responsibilities within the organizational environment of schools.

B. Contents and Description of the Materials:

A two-part set of workshop materials were produced for this area - a "Leader's Guide for Staff Training" and a "Participants' Training Guide". There are three main objectives for the workshop activities, summarized as follows:

1. Participants will become familiar with general empirical findings from the literature as well as an analysis of schools currently engaged in shared decision making;
2. Participants will complete a simulated training exercise in which areas of appropriateness for decision making are determined and ideas are given a priority ordering by the group, and;
3. Participants will prioritize and determine appropriateness of decision making responsibilities relevant to their local school setting.

The Leader's package contains a list of workshop materials needed, a suggested workshop agenda, pre and post tests, along with needed instructions on utilizing the materials. The Participants' Guide contains introductory discussion material, pre and post tests, and other workshop instructions. The authors suggest that the Leader's Guide be given one hour for review and the workshop experience should take approximately 6-8 hours.

C. Practitioners Questions

The following selected questions (and issues covered in the module) have been raised by practitioners concerned with this area:

Appropriateness of Decision Making

1. Is there an entire body of administrative detail that principals should handle carte blanche?

2. What are the kinds of things that decision making groups should do?

3. What is the difference between rendering an opinion and making a decision?

4. How does the decision making group determine whether the issue is one that should be dealt with by the group?

5. How does the representative on the decision making body deal with issues where there may be a conflict of interest?

6. How does the decision making group avoid "bitch" sessions?

7. How does the decision making body handle confidential personnel matters?

8. How does the decision making body learn to work with substantive issues rather than trivia?

9. Are the most effective and efficient leaders democratic decision makers?

10. How does the decision making group really identify the problems for which a decision is needed?

11. Is the formal circle of influence always congruent with the informal circle of influence?

V. PROBLEM SOLVING AND DECISION MAKING PROCESSES

A. Definition:

This area deals with group problem solving and communication skills necessary to the effective functioning of decision making groups.

B. Contents and Description of the Materials:

A workshop manual has been produced, which combines the leader's instructions for conducting the workshop with directions and materials for participants. Included in this package is introductory materials, a suggested agenda, statement of performance objectives, a diagnostic test with answers, explanation of problem solving techniques along with participant simulation exercises, recommendations for follow-up activities, and a post test with answers. Force field analysis, brainstorming and a simulation "budget" exercise involving role playing are emphasized in this training module. Additional discussion materials are included in the Appendices.

The workshop activities are anticipated to take six to eight hours to complete.

C. Practitioners Questions:

The following selected questions have been raised by practitioners concerned with this area:

Problem Solving and Decision Making Processes

1. How can one avoid watering down a solution to the point where it isn't meaningful?

2. How can problems be solved without having a "winner" and/or a "loser?"

3. How can the decision making group come to understand the mechanics of decision making?

4. How does the decision making group come to make decisions and then follow the decisions with implementation strategies?

5. How does the decision making group move from the superficial to the real problems?

6. What are the different ways to generate solutions to problems?

7. How does the decision making group learn listening skills--necessary for considering and reflecting on what others meant when they said something?

8. Feelings are important; how can they be taken into account when decisions are made?

9. How do decision making groups learn about communication skills, forcefield analysis, Delphi techniques and other approaches to problem solving?

10. How does the decision making group avoid the potential contest to determine who is right rather than what is right for children?

11. How do individual members develop objectivity skills and openness to change their opinions?

VI. COMMUNICATION SYSTEMS

A. Definition:

This area deals primarily with communication between decision making groups and others in the school community who are affected by their decisions. The introductory discussion paper emphasizes establishing "trust" between groups and individuals within the school, as well as conveying factual information concerning decisions that have been made.

B. Contents and Description of the Materials:

A short, introductory paper is provided. Reference is made to training materials which can assist school staff desiring to improve "in-group" communication. These programs emphasize important skills such as reflective thinking, paraphrasing, listening, etc.

Emphasis in the discussion paper revolves around building trust and effective communication to people affected by group decisions outside of the decision making group. Several specific suggestions are made related to trust building, including factors influencing inter-group communications, intra-group communication and follow-up appeal and quality control procedures. Being able to answer the question as to "why?" particular decisions were made is important in communicating to others the fact that alternatives were considered before final action was taken. Although this introductory package is brief, it raises several important issues which can improve the effectiveness of group decision making in public schools.

C. Practitioners Questions:

The following selected questions (and issues covered in the module) have been raised by practitioners concerned with this area:

Communication Systems

1. How is the image of a decision making group enhanced?

2. How can those affected by decisions have respect for the decision making group?

3. How can all affected have trust and respect for their colleagues?

4. How can the difficulty between the "in" group and the "out" group be avoided, or at least reduced?

5. How can results of decisions be communicated to various audiences?

6. How can schools participating in shared decision making ward off the "stones" that are sometimes thrown by other schools in the same district that are not participating in change?

7. What are the kinds of rewards available to the decision making group?

8. How can public relations be provided for the decision makers?

9. What vehicles of communication are available for conveying information up and down the ladder?

10. What responsibility does the decision making group have to provide feedback to various standing and/or ad hoc committees functioning within the school?

11. How are those committed to the process rewarded so they will continue in the adversity of those who claim to want involvement but who don't carry out their tasks?

Communication Systems

12. How can the feelings that went into making a decision be communicated, as well as the results of a decision?

VII. ACCOUNTABILITY AND RESPONSIBILITY

A. Definition:

This area deals with the continuing challenges of ensuring that decisions are successfully and responsibly implemented, monitored, and evaluated.

B. Contents and Description of the Materials:

A two-part set of materials was produced for this area; one for workshop leaders and one for participants. The first package contains performance objectives for the training, instructions for the leader, a suggested agenda, a diagnostic test with detailed answers, background discussion materials, and an accountability instrument. The specific objectives are:

1. The participants will become aware of relevant research and information on individual and group accountability and responsibility.
2. Each participant will be able to complete a planned design for upholding decisions.
3. A system for obtaining group support will be studied and learned by the workshop participants.
4. Specific plans will be generated by the participants for arrival at group consensus and commitment.

The second part contains informational materials for the participants, including a diagnostic test and instructions on utilizing the accountability instrument as an exercise in helping members of a group focus on accountability and responsibility issues in shared decision making. Self-commitment processes are emphasized. The leader's guide should require approximately two hours to read and the recommended workshop experience should last from six to eight hours.

C. Practitioners Questions:

The following selected questions (and issues covered in the module) have been raised by practitioners concerned with this area.

Accountability and Responsibility

1. How can an individual within a school carry out or implement a procedure after a decision has been determined?

2. What kind of monitoring system should be established to help carry out decisions?

3. What should be the consequences for those who don't carry out a decision?

4. What appeal procedures should be established for individuals who don't agree with a decision once it has been made?

5. How does the decision making body get others to accept the responsibility for carrying out decisions?

6. How are decisions evaluated for their consequences?

VIII. ORGANIZATIONAL OUTPUT

A. Definition:

Evaluation of shared decision making processes and procedures compared with results of more traditional, hierarchial or authority based work organizations is the primary concern of this area.

B. Contents and Description of the Materials:

A technical discussion paper was produced for this area. It includes a discussion of the difficulties and complexities of evaluating the effectiveness and efficiency of shared decision making. Basic assumptions and assessment issues are discussed. A proposed conceptual model for evaluating organizational output is briefly outlined and discussed. Skill development, attitudes, achievement, and functional products are incorporated into the design of measuring organizational outputs.

Reading and discussion timefor this document is approximately 1 - 3 hours.

C. Practitioners Questions

The following selected questions (and issues covered in the module) have been raised by practitioners concerned with this area:

Organizational Output

1. Does shared decision making foster collegial relationships that are positive?

2. What effect does shared decision making have on the school climate?

3. What kinds of negative behavior are those in shared decision making groups likely to encounter?

4. In shared decision making, is the level of accomplishment expectation higher?

5. Does morale become lower the greater the latitude of decision making?

6. Are there some individuals who don't fit in a school where there is shared decision making?

7. Where does a decision making group identify outside consultant assistance if it is needed?

8. How can a decision making group capitalize on the inherent in-district competencies of personnel?

9. How often should discussions on the strengths and weaknesses of the decision making model be held?

10. Is participation on the decision-making body a job-description type of responsibility?

11. What further delineation of the decision making variables is necessary?

Organizational Output

12. How does the decision making group continuously refine and improve the decision making process?

13. Do people believe they are being manipulated when they are a part of the decision making process?

14. How do decision makers expand their areas of interest and competency?

15. How does the decision making group find time to get trained?

16. What are the criteria on which a decision making model can be evaluated?

17. What is a reasonable amount of time to spend on maintenance of the group?

18. How can administrators in other places in the school district be kept informed about the decision making approach?

19. How do you handle requests for information from other people who are interested in shared decision making?

Where Does the Reader Go From Here?

The preceding information was provided as a synopsis of the work that has been done thus far in the field of shared decision making. Clearly, there is much that is still unknown about shared decision making and the reader should be aware of this fact. What is represented is the thinking of the authors of the study as well as the respected professional interpretations of a number of administrators and teachers from schools where participatory management (or shared decision making) is practiced.

The reader of this document may have continued interest in shared decision making; generally this interest arises as a result of one of two initial positions. The first position has to do with individuals who are already into shared decision making and can identify areas where they are having difficulty functioning. The second position is that of the readers who know very little about shared decision making and who wish to learn more.

For those in the first category, it seems sensible to have them take a look at the questions indicated earlier in this paper to determine where they are having difficulties. If there is a training package available, the readers may wish to order the materials for review and for possible use in a training session. Unfortunately there are some areas where there are no training packages available. For these areas of concern the user may wish to obtain the questions and the responses from users in the field and to review the discussion papers that have been prepared. The questions and responses indicate how some educators are dealing with the problems and the discussion papers indicate some of the thinking that the authors of the materials have given to the topic. As indicated the discussion papers are just that--discussion papers, no more nor no less.

For those in the second category, it seems that potential users may first wish to learn skills about problem solving. If this is the case, they may wish to order first the materials included in the Problem Solving and Decision Making Processes module. It may be helpful to the staff members to try some of the problem solving exercises in this training package in order to get some notion about how difficult and complex are the processes for arriving at some decisions. If this activity goes well, the people may wish to order the other packages so they can review the questions and responses of other people in the field. Where it seems to be appropriate, the people in the schools can go ahead with the training they believe is necessary. Some caution should be taken here lest the people in the schools decide to undertake all the training in the modules before engaging in shared decision making. Most of the training is most powerful when those engaged in the training have some sort of background on the work and study they are undertaking.

Shared decision making can occur--whether or not it will be successful is dependent on the people involved and the effort they put forth to make the effort successful. The decision to proceed is up to you!

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